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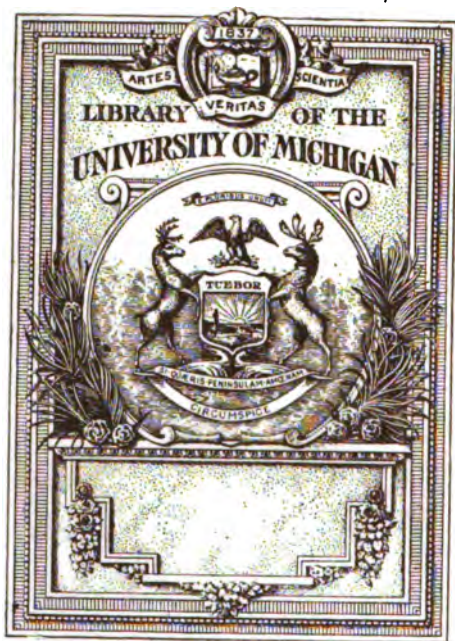
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**THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF  
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# THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING

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No. 1

## ORAL ENGLISH IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

MRS. MARY H. DOWD  
Manchester, N. H., High School

WITH the passing of the "good old days" and some of the good old customs that went along with them, such as speaking pieces on Friday afternoon, reading aloud in class of what are now known as "scraps"—albeit the best of scraps they were—and the gracious interchange of real views upon real topics in the circle gathered around the family board or the evening lamp, the problem of teaching high school pupils to speak intelligently, not to say eloquently or even fluently, the English tongue is beset with difficulties other than those reasonably to be blamed upon the ever-increasing proportion of pupils who hear no English spoken in the home. The first of these customs we should hardly wish revived, with its painful renditions of *Spartacus to the Gladiators* and *The Polish Boy*, and its fruitful harvest of child elocutionists. Even the second may perhaps be spared in view of the wide range of literary wholes now available for study. But that reading aloud by pupils in the classroom is well-nigh crowded out for what seem to some of us almost sacrilegious encroachments upon that precious hour when, through the magic of a living voice the heart of a seer is made to speak direct to the heart of a child, is, I believe, a distinct loss.

As for the matter of conversation, I sometimes think that we teachers of English are engaged in a mortal combat against the world, his wife, and his son. The following is a true report of an exchange of words that I heard not long ago between a pros-

perous, up-to-date father and his only son, a lad of high school age. The boy rushed in just as we rose from an early dinner. The father, glancing at the clock, remarked,

"Late!"

"Yep, little!"

"Where've you been?"

"Movies."

"So? Which?"

"Palace."

"Good?"

"Corker!"

"What about?"

"Oh, I dunno. You'd have to see it. Why don't you drop in?"

"Guess I will. Out again tonight?"

"Yep, Gym."

"Anything special?"

"Nope. Same old stunts."

"Well, don't be out too late."

"Nope. Beat it about eleven."

What wonder if the guest then and there abandoned her chosen field!

These are difficulties common to all. Others there are, more varied, yet more restricted. One kind may be found in all schools of a certain type: classical, commercial, technical, vocational; another, in the school where ~~courses in literature and in composition are separate units~~; still another in the school with a special teacher of public speaking or debating. Wholly different from any of these, but combining, perhaps, a few of the biggest problems in each, is that of the one high school in a community, under whose roof assemble children of all classes and conditions in life, representing in heritage almost every nation under the sun; the school whose course in English embodies everything possible legitimately to include under that term, together with everything else impossible to classify under any other term. As this is the type of school predominant outside of the large centers, and as it is the type with which I am familiar, it is of the work which may be done in oral English in such a school that I must speak.

The first thing necessary in planning the course is to decide what is impossible, what possible. It is obviously impossible to give any definite, graded lessons such as are so beautifully—and, I doubt not, so wisely—laid out in textbooks of oral English, on pronunciation, enunciation, voice training, action, and the rest. But we may, I think, reasonably hope to do four things: 1st, to interest these young people in themselves, and in one another, as they are related to the two worlds—the one in which they move, the other which moves around them; 2nd, to start the play of intellectual imagination; 3rd, to foster a desire for things excellent and of good repute; 4th, to develop strong, direct personalities, animated by high purpose and willingness to take pains. If, in these impressionable years, we can help pupils to acquire these powers, we shall at the same time, I believe, also help them to such habits of correct expression, of clear, forceful delivery, as are not only marks of culture, but assets in any practical business in life. The second necessity is to make sure that the course is steadily progressive, that pupils nowhere mark time. In order to be concrete, I am going to tell you how the eleven teachers in the English Department of the Manchester High School try to accomplish these ends.

We have about eleven hundred pupils. A cosmopolitan lot they are as they gather in the assembly hall on opening day; a fair proportion of native-born Americans, French, Germans, Italians, Greeks, Poles, Russians, Syrians, Belgians, a Chinese or two from public schools, graded and ungraded; from parochial and other private schools. One after another they are assigned their little corner in the one place where something continuous can be done towards amalgamation—the high school melting-pot, the English class. The process is begun at once, with two very definite aims: 1st, by creating a home-like atmosphere, through friendly talks about vacation, home interests, new impressions, and the like, to gain their confidence if not their affection; 2nd, through the best rendition the teacher can give of five poems and three short stories of her own choice, followed by a general discussion, to show the children how to get thoughts over to others simply but effectively, and how to get real enjoyment out of good reading.

Soon the class is ready for the first oral assignment, which varies according to the needs of divisions and the ingenuity of teachers. Usually, a dozen suggestions are offered. Pupils may retell an anecdote or a good joke; recite a favorite poem or a passage assigned for memorizing; discuss a topic from some study other than English; describe an eccentric or a famous person; narrate some incident in the life of a public character, living or dead; defend a hobby; retail a well-known story for an imaginary listener, as a five-year old child, a blind man, a prim old lady; discuss an invention or an event of world significance. Two pupils may dramatize a telephone conversation or prepare a dialogue, care being taken to have a suitable point developed. A group of pupils may present a brief farce, or an original dramatization of a short story or of a scene in class or home reading. Six hundred stereograph views furnish material almost inexhaustible, some specially adapted to this class being those listed under Geology, Zoology, Economic Botany, Races of Mankind, Children of the World. As the year advances, pupils give original talks, often accompanied by blackboard sketches, on some personal experience or observation; or on some abstract subject of interest to them, as music, books, friends, in dealing with which they are urged to look up and to memorize quotations from Bartlett, Benham, Stokes, and others. thus becoming familiar with books they will later be glad to know about. Often a day's exercise is made more impressive by having a chairman preside, who has previously chosen his speakers and arranged a program. In most divisions, though it is not required, at least one debate is held before the end of the year. Each pupil appears formally before the class four times, and is each time subjected to the criticism not of his teachers but of his peers, who are usually far less tolerant than the teacher of *er's* and *and's*; of indistinct enunciation; of illiterate verb and pronoun forms; of voices that "can't be heard back here"; but who are quick, too, to recognize merit and to commend an effort "a good deal better than his last."

The second year marks a decidedly forward step. Heretofore, attention to vocabulary and sentence form has been incidental, but now criticism is based on the principles being taught in composition hour, where the sentence is the unit of study as



the paragraph was last year. Here again the teacher reads: the *Ancient Mariner*—no longer on our study list; three other long or several short poems; two stories—all for the purpose of arousing thought, of cultivating imagination by having pupils tell the personal and, therefore, the varied, images aroused in their minds by the pictures and situation described. All this, we believe, helps in attaining the aim of oral assignments for this year: increased confidence in self and in the power to address one's fellow-beings interestingly, convincingly. Pupils are now limited to three or four minutes, and seldom allowed to speak on subjects directly connected with literature or any other part of the English work. Athletics, science, history, current events, favorite pursuits, original monologues and dialogues, experience accounts, "that reminds me" anecdotes, imaginary interviews, social courtesies—such as the introduction of two pupils by another, with mention of some topic of common interest on which all three then converse for two or three minutes—a group discussion of ways and means for raising money for a school or class enterprise, stereographs again, and *Mentor* pictures, all afford possibilities. A class reading *The Tale of Two Cities* has just enjoyed a set of talks on the French Revolution, illustrated by stereograph and *Mentor* views. They are soon to dramatize one of the Cruncher scenes and a knitting scene. Last year corresponding divisions gave the trial scene. The day of its presentation, study pupils thronged to the room, but seats during the last hour were at a premium. The reason was evident when, after calling the regular witnesses, the daring attorney for the defense summoned Jane Addams, Billy Sunday, Theodore Roosevelt, Jess Willard, and other stars of varying magnitudes. Four times again each pupil speaks formally. Besides, hardly a week passes without several taking part in less formal exercises; all the class may be asked to prepare one or two minute talks in answer to some question in rhetoric, perhaps, or in development of some topic, which only two or three at the appointed time are called upon to give. During the study of argument at least one debate is required in each division, but pupils enjoy this so much that for two years past every pupil in every sophomore division has taken part in a debate.

By the beginning of the junior year most pupils have gained a reasonable degree of self-confidence, show improvement in construction, diction, power of appeal. Hence they are now expected to make serious preparation for the first three exercises out of the four required. They stand before the class not only during delivery of the theme but during the criticism that follows, replying to questions asked, explaining anything misunderstood, acknowledging a mistake here, defending a point there. Comments are more intelligent and searching, less trivial than heretofore, bearing chiefly upon the speaker's manner and his ability to hold attention; upon the value and interest of his subject, selection and treatment of details, sentence structure, choice of words, illustrations. Again the teacher reads, two essays and two short stories. The topics are more varied, more ambitious, of course, more interesting. Pupils following general and domestic science courses often discuss topics in these lines; boys of a scientific or political turn report on inventions, discoveries, events of national or world significance. Every pupil does at least one bit of argumentative work, either in the form of a brief persuasive address on some matter of local moment, or in a debate. Most pupils prefer to debate, but I have heard some very good speaking on such topics as *Why Concord Common Should Be Made a Civic Center*; *Why Saloons Should be Prohibited on Amherst Street*; *Why the High School Should Own Its Own Athletic Field*; *Credit towards Graduation Should Be Given Football Players Who Have Won Their M*; *The Oracle* (the school paper) *Should Be Retained*, and the like. One exercise this year approaches the extemporaneous type. Pupils are told that on some day within a specified time they will be called upon either to give their views on some topic suggested in their class reading for the day, or to tell how to make or how to do something that they are sure they can make or can do well. One day lately I heard a class talk earnestly on a question brought out by the day's essay study, of the duty of self-preservation or of self-sacrifice in the moment of unexpected calamity. On another day, all pupils in a small division, who had read a group of narrative poems for supplementary work, after five minutes of thought, spoke for a minute or two on some idea inspired by one of the poems. Among the hardest but also the most valuable

requirements in this class is the telling of a good story or a joke. I heard this admirably done in one division last week, and was pleased to note that criticism in regard to facial expression, animation of manner, self-control, was especially discriminating.

Oral themes for the senior year are assigned with great care, to secure deeper and more independent thought, or to give greater play to the imagination. They are made very practical, too. Announcements, interviews, reports of supplementary reading—often in conversation form, three or four pupils in a group, talking as people ordinarily do talk in answer to the question, "What have you been reading lately?" are made a happy means of dispensing such information as intelligent men and women should possess about present conditions, famous people, interesting books and magazines. In commercial and general divisions we try to correlate with pupils' interests in other departments, and we do much of our special study of the newspaper, the magazine, and the letter, each of which runs through a third of the year, by means of individual investigation and oral report. In college divisions, when we study the oration everybody writes one long speech for some particular imaginary audience, for some particular purpose. The best of these are delivered before the class, who in turn imagine themselves to be the special audience, and criticize from the point of view of that audience. This year we are to do, also, some extempore speaking, for which an assignment just completed was preparatory. This was done as follows. One day I asked each pupil to write on a slip of paper three or four topics on each of which, if that subject were broached in conversation with an adult who really knew something about it, he would be able to talk intelligently for two or three minutes. The slips collected, I told pupils the plan. From the topics handed in by each, I should select one, and on certain appointed days, at the beginning of the recitation, ask a pupil to speak on that one of his three, giving him only five minutes to collect and organize his ideas. Consternation reigned. "That was a trick!" "Supposed you just wanted to know what we're interested in out of school!" "Never thought I'd have to do it!" But they are good sports, and they had a deal of fun—except on the days *they* spoke. It was a most successful experiment. It put them on their mettle, brought out their individuality,

developed their sense of humor, established a spirit of good comradeship not usually evident so early in the year. The grown-up air in which many of them opened their talks with a bright or a humorous remark that put everybody at ease, was most enlightening to one who seldom hears them indulge in personal witticisms. Some of the topics were as surprising as they were interesting. One boy talked so well on *The Furniture of our Forefathers* that I am sure Sheraton and Chippendale and Empire mean more to most of his listeners than they did before. Fully one-third illustrated their talks with blackboard sketches. Some of the most attractive subjects were *Bird Hunting as a Sport*; *Should Postgraduates Be Allowed to Play on the Football Team* (a burning question with us), *An Up-to-date Laundry*, *Some of the Trials of a Clerk in a Postoffice Sub-station*, *The Manufacture of Cotton and Woolen Hose*, *The History of a Fire Insurance Policy*, *The Science of Candy-making*, *The Amusing Side of Club Life*, these six by boys working their way through school in ways suggested by the titles; *The Hardships of a Plumber*, by a plumber's son; *Something about Wireless Telegraphy*, by a boy who had recently passed the Boston examination for a first-grade operator's license; *Getting Election Returns in a Newspaper Office*, by the son of an editor; *City Playgrounds*, by a girl who was an assistant playground instructor during summer vacation; *An Eighty-mile Hike*; *Some Great Musicians of the Day*; *Habits of Chickens*. When this last topic was announced, the class laughed so heartily that for a second or two the girl called upon could not begin. The title and the speaker seemed most incongruous, for she is so scholarly that she is one of the candidates for graduation honors, and so dainty that I think her listeners expected a bookish dissertation. They got nothing of the kind! Because of a lack of workers on her father's suburban estate last summer, she had volunteered to care for the chickens, had become interested in watching them, and gave the result of personal observation, comparing their habits to the habits of human beings so ingeniously that laughter, though quiet, was almost continuous.

Criticism was alert and helpful, many questions were asked, and many different opinions elicited. Such comments as "Miss G. wouldn't have convinced me, had I been on a committee, that

a Y. W. C. A. is needed in Manchester." "First rate! I shall be more patient hereafter when I have to wait for a registered letter; I'd no idea all that had to be done." "I admired his calmness; he had to wait for a word three times, but we didn't mind because he didn't." "Burroughs seemed to be living over again his chase for that butterfly; he enjoyed it so much himself that he made us enjoy it too." "C—dropped every *ing* he came to," this gave opportunity for a little talk on ways of conquering this fault, such as making a list of twenty or twenty-five words ending in *ing* and pronouncing them daily. Next morning, after our football star had given a talk on The Eleven, the wag of the class raised a hearty laugh by inquiring, "I should like to ask C— if he has here the list of *ing* words he made out last night"; (of course, C—hadn't it here nor there) "I was going to suggest," continued the tormentor, "that he let H— borrow it." The effect of such reproof as this is far more salutary than anything the instructor could administer.

The next step in this class will be a bit of really unprepared speaking, just what I do not yet know. Later we shall have an imaginary meeting, perhaps a miniature Manchester Publicity Association Banquet, where there will be several imaginary tables, each presided over by a real toastmaster or toastmistress, who will call upon prominent citizens for remarks. The scheme is not yet decided; but we always have good times at these banquets, and some speeches really creditable. After the guests are assigned to various tables, they choose their own presiding officers, and their own situation, such as the twenty-fifth reunion of the class, at which the mayor and one or two aldermen, a famous writer or a football coach, an inventor, and other celebrities are "delighted to be present tonight." One year, when the New Hampshire legislature had just killed the woman suffrage bill, one table had its banquet in honor of the first woman governor of the state, whose really clever address was followed by one from her crushed opponent—a man of course, and a Democrat by the way—and that in turn by the governor-elect's manager, who told how he had conducted the campaign.

Debates for this class are yet to be planned. Always several plays, short, lively, are given at class affairs of one kind or another, and one or more really ambitious things, these usually

under the direction of the Euphronia, a very live literary society for the girls, aided by the members of the Forum, the boys' society, quite as live but less literary. Last year they did so well with the *Merchant of Venice* that they were asked to repeat it for one afternoon and one evening of the Shakespeare Three-Day Municipal Festival. Next Friday they are to give *The Taming of the Shrew*.

This in brief is what we try to do in English classes. Besides, all who take any course in history—and American history is compulsory in the senior year—have further practice in both formal and informal speaking.

Now you may well ask, "What do you really accomplish?" "Not very much, after all," I sometimes say to myself when I realize that the stray visitor, unaccustomed to the voices I know so well, is catching only a part of the regular recitation. "Not very much," I repeat, as I inspect written work and see that straggling, incoherent sentences still flourish in spite of all the extremists claim for transferred power of organization and expression. "A good deal," I exclaim when I compare the dignified argument carried on ten days ago by four boys at the close of an illustrated talk by one of them on the mechanism of gasoline motors with their childish efforts four years ago. They have learned to give and to take, to think quickly, to speak directly, to hold and to express frankly their own opinions but at the same time to be tolerant of the opinions of others, to bear defeat graciously or to accept victory modestly. "A good deal," I am sure, when any football boy, called from his seat in the assembly hall to say a word for school spirit at the next game, comes forward without hesitation and makes an address of which his father might well be proud. "Much indeed!" I exclaim, when the young editor of the school paper, forced by the higher cost of printing and by other circumstances, to raise the price from the traditional fee of ten cents a copy to fifteen, makes a ten-minute appeal to the classes in assembly—an audience at first wholly opposed to the decision—and, calling at the end of the talk for all to stand who will promise to buy at least the first three issues of the paper, brings every pupil to his feet, and inspires such spirit that on Friday last, when the second issue

came out, all doubt as to the future of the paper, for this year at least, was removed.

In short, what the high school may with reason really aim for, as I said in the beginning, that the high school should do, can do. First it can cultivate the habit of independent thought; make these boys and girls see that those who, called upon unexpectedly, speak fluently and convincingly, do so either because they have experienced what they say, or because they have thought it all out for themselves long before. Second, it can foster the imagination and the emotions. Third, it can turn their attention to things that make for seriousness, elevation, strength of character, and by so doing draw forth—*educere*—expression correspondingly serious, elevated, strong.

It is not an easy task, nor, always, a pleasant. Attacked in the right spirit, the planning and directing of oral English in the ordinary high school is one of the hardest, least promising parts of the work. It is hardest because it demands on the teacher's side inventiveness, enthusiasm, superlative tact, and broad sympathy, that she may through wise assignments and kindly yet searching criticism, through teaching the intelligent, effective use of what Dr. Finley called last night "those sacred things, words," kindle the "spark of the divine" which we need to see, with the eye of faith, in each of these boys and girls. It is least promising because brilliant successes are few; results are slow. We sometimes fail here because we have not that "eye of faith"; because we long to accomplish in a few weeks, a few years even, what only a whole lifetime can bring about. For the ordinary pupil in the ordinary high school, the value of oral English is not to be measured at the close of a year, as may be measured, perhaps, his knowledge of some exact science—geometry, for instance, by so many theorems mastered, so many problems solved. Not even at the end of the four years can it be justly estimated. In fact, I doubt if the best work in oral English can ever be measured. Like all that is worth most in life, its chief value is ideal, intangible. For those, then, who must in this field bear the burden of the day and the heat thereof, three things are absolutely necessary: Faith, Hope, Patience, these three, and the greatest of these is Patience, the will to labor and to wait.

## SUGGESTIONS AS TO METHODS IN RESEARCH<sup>1</sup>

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C. H. WOOLBERT  
Cambridge, Massachusetts

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I HAVE been called. I am asked to show down. Will I please lay my hand on the table? Fate has, by one of her characteristic oddities, made me the spokesman of a cause for which I feel no especial responsibility and which, somewhat against my will, I am compelled to espouse. If there is any man in the profession of teaching public speaking who would like better than I to do nothing but teach the subject, and perform the incidental offices that go with teaching, I do not know who he is. But by a series of accidents almost terrifying in their sequence, I find myself here this morning defending and explaining the propaganda of research in the field of public speaking and allied subjects.

One real apology I must make at the start and that is that this paper is just a year too previous. It is way ahead of its schedule. What I know about research more than anybody else, is to me merely a myth. In the course of the year I shall be in a position to catch a little infection, but as yet the exposure has been entirely too brief to develop a proper culture of research germs.

### *Research Not for All Teachers*

The only sure notion that has come to me in the last few months is that research is not for everybody. An attempt to make special investigators out of all members of the profession, or of any profession, would necessarily prove abortive. All of us who have observed the lines of cleavage on university faculties between teachers and investigators, have been compelled to see that not everybody is fitted to research; just as not everybody is fitted to teach. In the main we are a teaching branch of the educational tree, and we shall always remain so. I should be one of the last ever to declare that the teacher of public speaking and its allied subjects should yield its heritage

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<sup>1</sup> Given at the second annual convention of the national association, New York, December 2, 1916.



of teacher and guide. It is for this reason that I do not share the fears of some of the brethren that this movement for research is to rob us of our distinctive character and to draw us away after false gods. Our anchor is too sure and firm for any such danger. If we as a profession should ever put up with such feeble and futile teaching as some departments of education seem willing to stand for, may the Lord have mercy upon us; we are done for. Superior teaching is our safest prop.

One of the first impressions for the man who tries research is a feeling of disillusionment. It is vastly less exciting than conducting a class or working up debates or preparing programs and plays. In fact, it looks upon close view discouragingly like drudgery. Worse than this, even, it looks like trifling, like a descent from the lofty mission of leading the youth of the land up to the heights of Pisgah and showing them the promised land. The experience is like that which must have come to thousands who rushed to western Eldorados with hearts aflame and with spirits in the skies, only to find out that their daily task was scraping dirt, picking over gravel, and sifting sand out of a dish pan. It is something like going from the courtroom or the pulpit to work in a coal mine.

But this must not be taken in disparagement of the value and the need of research. It is merely meant as a frank statement of the realities of the situation. Without thousands of filterings and weighings, we should have no increase in our knowledge of chemistry and of medicine. Without a multitude of tedious, uninspiring measurements, and dreary repetitions of seemingly useless observations, we should have no advance in knowledge of physics, biology, and bacteriology.

There are many types of teachers who will not be interested in research. Anyone who has a closed system of teaching expression, debate, or speech composition, will have no interest in it. It will prove only troublesome, and not in the least helpful in the solution of his problems. The stating of new issues, and then the working out of them, is in the nature of the case, only for those who know that they are dealing with an imperfect tool and who wish to improve it. Moreover, it is not for those who look upon speech arts and practices as merely a matter of incidental training. If you honestly believe that

the whole end and aim of instruction in matters of speaking and reading is merely a clearing up of the defects of other curriculums, then you clearly have no need for research and no interest in it. Or again, if you are so constituted that you can not face a pile of statistics or a welter of figures and reports, then it will be unwise for you to give up what you are doing to try the new game.

Obviously it is also not for those whose positions exclude them from any chance to spend time on investigating. A man who is teaching sixteen or twenty—or thirty—hours a week, is not going to have much effort to give to research. That is self-evident. I worked on that kind of a job once, and I know whereof I speak. Then too, it is not for those teachers of English who side in with the notion that there can be no such thing as research in rhetoric. Rhetoric and speech matters have so much in common, with a common ancestry and much of a common aim, that if one is not meat for research, in all probability neither is the other. Obviously also, research is not for the man or woman whose real vocation is Chautauqua work or preaching or playing the political game, and to whom teaching is only an avocation. No one who already is working at two jobs can be much of a light in the field of research. And lastly, research will make little appeal to those who are content to rest all decisions upon our old friend, common sense. I can foresee that when later in this paper I make certain proposals for investigation, some will wonder why in the world we should worry about any other kind of truth than that of plain, everyday sense. Research is surely not for them.

#### *Research of a Non-laboratory Nature*

So now if our minds are eased a bit as to who are exculpated and excused, we ought to be able to face the rest of this paper with considerable equanimity. Just how many are included in the foregoing classifications is problematical; but I proceed on the assumption that there are enough left to work on. With this to support us, let us look into the possible types of investigations that can be pursued by the teacher as we find him, working at research in conjunction with his teaching.

First, though, let us relieve our minds of any illusions or phobias concerning the nature of this mysterious and terrible thing, research; the Oxford dictionary defines research as "the endeavor to discover facts by scientific study of a subject; a course of critical investigation." That is all; just an endeavor to get at the facts by means of scientific methods. But what are these scientific methods? They can be stated under two classifications. First, as to their aim, they are for the purpose of describing, analyzing, and explaining the phenomena of experience. When we have described, analyzed, and explained, we have produced a bit of truth that may—or may not—be worth something to the kingdom of knowledge. Secondly, the distinctively scientific quality of the investigation is determined by the method of getting at the data involved. Work done in the laboratory requires three conditions: first, control, or isolation of elements; second, variation; and, third, repetition. As nobody knows yet just what a laboratory of speech problems is like, we cannot say with certainty what constitutes control or isolation for investigations in speech matters. One of the first tasks of research is to find out something about our method. That it can be done, is suggested by the success of other new disciplines; say, education. Educational research is now working out a method that probably will stand the test of scientific validity. So with business administration and sociology, and others. Speech problems can do the same.

If, now, you as an individual want to know what you yourself can do, in the way of research, first take account of your special training. In what subject did you major or specialize in college? If you have a master's degree, in what line of work? Follow your training, and beyond a doubt you will find something waiting for you. Those who have specialized in literature can find some exceedingly interesting problems in the literature of speech. The method that is used in the department of English can easily be employed by anyone with a bent in that direction. Fortunately for such a one, too, the method is relatively simple and needs no special apparatus. Its chief requisite is a library—and no end of patience and willingness to work. This kind of research will be an excellent vacation occupation for some one who the major portion of the year is sequestered in a

small college or in a small town and who would delight to spend a summer at some university town or in a large city. English scholars are continually adopting this method; any of us can do it if we are inclined that way.

Critical studies of the literature of the occasional speech, debate, political campaigns, the pulpit, and the drama, are possible and fruitful. Especially in the field of acting, stage production, and the acted drama, have we an unexcelled chance for new studies. I resent it when I see this work preempted by the philologist and the literary critic—the English scholar. It does not belong to him, and is his only by right of squatter sovereignty. I sometimes think that the rush of graduate students in English to the drama is the most eloquent possible tribute to the futility of some English advanced studies. The study of the stage is vital and alive; wonderfully attractive as a subject for research. But it surely does not belong rightly to a department dominated by men whose central interest is philology. Let me express the prayer that some of our young men teaching speech subjects will take up research in the drama and bring it back to its rightful owner. The English scholars possess it simply because they found it a poor wandering waif, neglected of its rightful parents. They brought it into their house to live with its cousin, dramatic literature, but it doesn't belong there. They can show only fabricated papers of adoption, and it is high time for us to step in and take it back. Let us pray earnestly for research in acting, dramatic production, and the presented drama before the rich mine of possibilities passes to other and alien hands.

The teacher trained in history can also find profitable work. Undoubtedly most of us swallow texts on history of oratory in a purely uncritical mood. How do we know from present literature that what we accept as facts are such? We can very sanely be more critical in our acceptance of existing texts on the history of debate, oratory, acting, stage traditions, parliamentary struggles, political combats, religious campaigns, and the history of speech in general. What is more, there must be a tremendous mass of facts of interest to the student of speech that has not been gleaned at all or at best not classified and evaluated.

The same would hold of the teacher trained in economics or in political science. Each can, true to his bent, make his investigations in the field that most interests him. The economist can study the relation of economic conditions to the use or disuse of the public forum, the effect of factory and modern industrial systems on oratory and public meetings, the difference in speech conditions in the crowded city as against the country district. This you will notice is getting over into the sociologist's corn patch. But let it go at that; it will merely suggest that if we have a sociologist among us, he can use his peculiar method and get to work profitably.

Personally, if I were trained in political science, and disposed to investigate, I could get great fun out of investigating the relation of campaign oratory, to various political campaigns. There is no end of the field in which one could work; national, state, and local elections in America, and similar campaigns in the countries of Europe. The political scientist teaching speech matters need never bewail his lack of opportunity for research while such juicy picking as this is in sight. This same holds for the lawyer. Among our members we have not a few legal luminaries. What fun it would be to attend trials and court sessions of various kinds to make systematic study of the conditions and effects of speech at the bar and before the bench. For the preacher also there are golden fields ripe to the harvest. As a sample of some of the sheaves that the preacher could bring in, let him take the trail of the great and only Billy Sunday during one of his campaigns, analyze his methods, his manner of handling a crowd, his dependence upon preliminary organization as a matter of tuning his auditors. We ought to get some interesting conclusions as to the relation between circus antics and the response of the hearer. A report of the findings—rhetorical, not theological, God save the mark!—would make lovely reading, and profitable withal. There are those who simply do not see this man; for them he does not exist. They explain him by denying that there is such an animal. But he can move the multitude and can set at naught many of the most cherished tenets of the academic speaker and teacher. How does he do it and what are the realities involved? For one I am anxious to read this forth-coming article!

What the physiologist and the physician can do has been demonstrated by Blanton at Wisconsin. Experiments in testing the voice are rapidly becoming standardized; whoso will learn them can find them out and can use them to great profit. I hesitate even to suggest here even the possibilities of this field. I will leave it to Blanton, Mackey, Swift, Martin, and others to detail their methods; for I do not know them.

### *Laboratory Experimentation*

But I have not yet answered the question to which I suspect I am to be held most rigidly; that of how we may reduce problems in speaking to laboratory conditions. I repeat what I said at the opening; this paper is at least a year too early. Later I hope really to know something about the control, variation, and repetition of the factors involved in various aspects of speech. What I have to offer now is merely what the title of this paper promises—some suggestions only.

I can begin by describing what is going on in the psychological laboratory at Harvard nowadays in Emerson 27. I am working under the general caption, Conditions and Effects of Speech. I have the disposal of five groups of subjects, three or four in a group. Thus far the work has been of the most rudimentary character, and the results are not yet. What we are doing is trying to find out how to begin. We are experimenting with methods in the hope of finding out what our method is. I can give you only what we have found out up to this time.

Our first step was a simple exercise in timing readers under different conditions of reading and different situations of the audience. At the beginning we dealt with so simple a matter as finding, by means of the stop watch, the difference in time between reading with eyes on the book and with eyes glancing up at the audience from time to time. Then we changed the position of the listeners; front row, back row, middle row, strung across on a diagonal line from front to back, and timed the reader to see if there is any correlation. The results are too meagre as yet to be worth anything, though they are at least interesting. Thus far good old common sense has not been fully upheld. It would be easy enough to decide in our arm chairs

just how such experiments ought to turn out. But the results so far leave me a little uncertain as to the validity of the uncontrolled conclusion; there are some unlooked-for contradictions of common sense. But as I am not sure that our isolation of elements has been complete, and as I am very certain that the number of instances is altogether too few for a conclusion, I refrain from stating any of the results. Besides, some of my subjects might hear of them, and that would upset the conditions of the experiments. In order to keep conditions constant, the subjects must be kept in complacent ignorance of what their actions reveal.

This exercise has been varied by changing from the oratorical selections, with which we began, to poetry. Again, we measured, in another test, the number of lines of oratory read in two minutes. Most of our time, however, has been given to the reading of ten-line passages from a little collection of oratorical selections entitled, *Five-Minute Declamations*, compiled by Fobes. I chose this book because the lines were filled up fairly even throughout, making it possible to maintain uniformity in the contents of ten-line passages, both as to number of words and as to style of matter, which is very good.

Latterly we have extended the experiment in order to find out the effects upon the listener. We are trying out the effects of various distractions. First we used the device of having the listeners perform simple problems in arithmetic, like multiplying two by two, then the product of this by three, this product by four, and so on until nine, when we return to two for the multiplier and so on indefinitely. But this proved unsatisfactory for several reasons. In the first place, all that the reader could see of his listeners was the tops of their heads; and he could not help feeling that he did not have an audience before him, only multipliers who were not concerned with what he was doing. The multiplying became the audience's chief concern, not listening. The speaker was thus reduced to a distracting noise. Obviously we could not depend upon the validity of results as to the speaker's work under such conditions.

To remedy this defect we tried a new kind of a distraction for the attention of the hearer, one that we thought would make him at least look more like a real listener. Before the reading

began, the readers were given a consonant to look for whenever it occurred as the initial letter of a word. They were to count the number of these; then at the close of the reading the operator was to receive their report and record it. The substitution had the virtue of compelling the listener to look the part; he changed from merely an expanse of hair or a bald spot to an intent face, looking at the speaker with eager attention. But we found again that the attention—though rapt—was not of the right kind; the listener was not getting what listeners seek under unartificial conditions. So we added another turn. This time the listener was to report not only on the number of specified initial consonants, but on four questions dealing with the text of what was read. This we have been trying now for some weeks, and it looks thus far like a proper frame of mind for the hearer. Here are a few of the kinds of questions asked: "What is the subject? What state was named in this passage? Were there any interrogatory sentences? What proper names were used? Cite a figure of speech? Was the speaker impassioned or calm?" True, these are not precisely what we expect a listener to gather from a speech or reading, but they serve nicely to measure the power of concentration of the hearer, and that is what we are seeking at present.

To show the manner of conducting such an experiment, let me detail the procedure. The equipment needed is as follows: a room large enough to suggest a difference in the effects of speaking in different parts of the room; enough subjects to make up an audience—three will do if more cannot be had—; a stop watch; passages to be read typewritten on sheets of paper about five by eight, each passage on a different sheet (if the reader were to read from the book, he would unintentionally learn the contents of other passages and so would impair the validity of his answers to these), each passage to be numbered; a pack of cards, one for each passage, and numbered to match, on which is a set of four questions pertinent to the particular passage they match; on each card is a record of the number of times certain letters (chosen arbitrarily) occur at the beginning of words in the passage concerned. The experimenter is provided with blanks ruled to allow a complete record of what happens on each test; the number of the reader, the number of the passage to be read,



the number of each listener, the time taken up in the reading, the situation of the audience, the degree of accuracy of the listener in counting initial consonants, and the grade on the scale of 100 attained by the reader in answering the questions. The listener is provided with a ruled sheet that enables him to record the number of the reader, the number of the passage and the answers to the questions. So much for the equipment needed.

Now for the test. The reader takes the platform and glances over the passage he is to read, in order to avoid stumbling and unnecessary retardation of the time. The listeners take their places in the seats that are called for by the situation in which the audience is to be for this specific trial. The experimenter sits as one of the audience, though he does not report, being too busy with other matters. The experimenter records on his tally sheet (1) the identity of the reader—we have them numbered—(2) the number of the passage to be read, (3) the situation of the audience—their location and spread in the hall—, and (4) the manner in which the reader is to read. Let us say that subject 5 is to read passage 24 while the audience spreads out along the front row—in the A position as we call it—, the reader is to glance up from time to time as he reads, which we call manner 2. When the reader has looked over his passage, the experimenter announces, “Number 5 is now to read passage 24; the reader will make sure to keep his eye on the audience as well as his paper, the situation is A2, and the initial letter is *b*. ‘Ready’—then a pause of about two seconds—‘read.’” He snaps the stop watch, and the reader begins to read. At the close of the reading the reader gives a signal, either striking the desk a sharp blow or saying “end” vigorously.

Then the reports are rendered. Immediately the reading has ended the experimenter calls out, “Question 1: What is the subject?” or whatever the first question may be. Then he announces question 2, and so on through the list of four. When the four questions have been answered, the experimenter takes the record of the number of the initial consonants found, records opposite the number of each listener the number of them he has found, and reduces this to a percentage basis and records the percentage of accuracy. The marking of the answers to the four questions is done later and recorded on this same sheet. This

constitutes one reading. Then we change something; either one reader for another, or the manner of reading, or the seating of the audience; all of which is duly recorded.

Those who get their greatest happiness in life from teaching, are likely to think that this is a pretty trifling thing to be doing. Maybe so; only we have the faith to believe that if we can keep to a proper scientific method and follow the leads that come to us, we shall at least find a way of doing business that will ultimately lead to worth-while results. One fact becomes more and more apparent, and that is that the only proper way of going about research is to be as slow as you have to be, and then to be very sure in everything you do. The laboratory is no place for impatient people.

### *Some Suggestions for Experiments*

We come now to some of the suggestions promised by the title of the paper. First, let us take up some of the questions that lead to interesting possibilities in the way of method. Let us see what issues are simple enough to lend themselves to some kind of control. Here are a few by way of a beginning:

(1) Should a speaker place his weight on one foot or divide it between the two feet? Some texts teach that he should divide it evenly; I, for one, happen to possess a very violent prejudice for teaching that he should keep it on only one foot at a time. Which is right? The appeal ought to be to some kind of controlled, varied, and repeated experiment.

(2) Should a speaker restrain gesture or give way to it? Some teachers are sure he should do the one, while others are just as sure he should do the other.

(3) Does a speaker impair his efficiency by reading from manuscript? Most of us assume that he does; yet some men read very effectively indeed. Would they do better freed from the paper?

(4) Does the size of the room affect impressiveness, and how?

(5) What is the relation between the speaker's rate of delivery and the distance of the audience?

(6) What is the relation between the rate and the spread of the audience?

(7) What are the effects upon the speaker's rate or impressiveness when he sits, leans on the desk, stands in a group with his hearers, reads with his audience behind his back or to one side, stands behind a desk or without a desk or prop?

(8) What are the effects of all these situations when the speaker delivers extempore speeches, or recites from memory?

(9) What are the effects of all these conditions in (8) and (9) in different kinds of rooms—different in shape, size, height, decoration, and associative tendency?

A whole cycle of problems can be worked out beautifully with the help of a phonograph. Only in this way, probably, is it feasible to attempt to control conditions for the study of vocal methods. With a set of records rightly conceived and executed, the following type of problems can be worked out:

(10) What are the effects on the listeners of different "keys" of melody?

(11) Under what circumstances is monopitch endurable? When is wide variety of pitch most acceptable? When is the minor cadence appropriate?

(12) What are the laws of phrasing? of rhythm? of prolongation of the vowel? of speeding up?

(13) What is the relation between force (intensity of sound) and the listener's attention? What are the laws of change of force?

(14) What is the relation between quality of the voice and the feelings of the listeners? What has purity of tone to do with the hearer's ability to catch the logical meaning of the thought?

These problems would need breaking up into more minute issues before they could be used most advantageously; but that they are fruitful in the extreme there can be no room for doubt. The solution of them strikes at the very foundations of our instruction in speech and public address.

Just to suggest how much we need research in matters of this general nature, permit me to quote, from an article that appeared recently in the *QUARTERLY JOURNAL*, some flat-footed, Olympian decrees given to the reader without so much as an if or an I-think-so.

- a. "In the conveying of a message the mechanical elements are exceedingly insignificant; the idea is the thing."
- b. "Do not under any circumstances try to teach gesture."
- c. "Avoid by all means unison vocal exercises."
- d. "He (the student) should not know or hear of any error in speaking except the one he needs to correct."

How many of us agree with these oracular utterances? I take issue on every one. Others will agree with me; still others with the man who pronounced them. If we cannot agree, would it not add to our peace of mind if we could reduce them to experimental conditions and get results so definite that there would be no room left for cavil or argument or personal opinion?

Just to show that some of these problems are not out of the range of possibility for many of us, here are a few methods that can be employed by the man who wills to use them. Let him engage the services of from three to—as many subjects as he can get. He can secure them from among members of his staff, from students who have a peculiar interest in his work or in him, or from certain classes. Set hours of meeting, and keep them as punctiliously as classes. Use your subjects as readers, reciters, speakers, and listeners. Work out blank forms for recording your data. (There is no patent rule for this; it is always a matter of cut and try.) Find out, by frequent trial and error, the system that minimizes waste and yet preserves accuracy and control. Use one method until it fails or else develops into something better. Then go at it with patience and with a light heart. Schiller says all art is dedicated to joy; so is science, if it is the real thing.

Now for the problem itself. Take the matter of gesture, see problem (2) above. Train two speakers so that they recite poetry or oratory or exposition with reasonably equal degrees of impressiveness vocally, according to the best judgment of the experimenter. Record a preliminary statement of what you expect to find in good reading or speaking; not as an oracular solution of the problem, but as a basis for estimating your results. Have your two reciters commit the same poem or section of a speech. Let them recite to a group of listeners, one reciting without gestures, the other using what might be called a median number of gestures. Do not let the listeners know

beforehand what you are trying to find out. Secure from the listeners reports as to such factors as (1) the identity of the words emphasized, (2) the identity of the ideas most clearly impressed, (3) the acceptableness of the style of speaking. Get judgments by having the listeners grade the readers on some such scale as  $-4$  to  $+4$ . By alternating the order of presenting gestured and ungestured passages, a result could be determined as to the ability of the listener in grasping the theme, the subject, and specific facts connected with the subject-matter. Record would have to be kept of the places where gestures occurred, and the effects could thus be studied. I feel sure that any one who tries this with any degree of patience and attention to detail will find it full of fruitful results.

Then there is that interesting problem about the weight of the body and the feet. With two properly devised scales, a speaker, and an audience, one could work out a very pretty little experiment. In this case it would be best to get an audience that is naive on the subject, one that has no pet notions one way or the other, that can give judgments of preferences without any previous set of the mind. Let the speaker read or speak with one foot on one scale and with the other foot on the other scale. Let him express a sentiment with his weight balanced between the two; get this balance by the scales. Ask for reports from the audience as to whether his posture carries the right meaning to them in the light of the sentiment or thought expressed. Let them grade on a scale of  $-4$  to  $+4$ . Be sure to have the reports secret; otherwise the social factor will enter and upset your results. Then have the speaker stand with one foot bearing down on one scale, the other foot merely resting its own weight on the other scale. Get reports on each position and record them, together with the identity of the passage, the number of the speaker, and the distribution of the weight as registered in pounds on the respective scales. Change position, speakers, audiences, sentiments, and types of literature, passages, distribution of weight, and you have as neat an experiment as a seeker after truth could wish for.

Here is another that would reduce to something like quantitative terms an old, old subject of dispute—the concentration of the speaker's mind on what he is saying. Some of us have this settled for all time right now; but if we are going to dip

into scientific methods at all, we shall have to go the limit and try everything, even if in the process we should happen to kill one or two family pets or a community sacred cow. The experiment in question would be on the effects of distraction upon the speaker or reader. As the subject reads, have him do some simple problem in addition, or let him count some initial consonant in the passage he is reading. This will serve to decentralize his thought. Then let him read the same passage without the distraction. Vary by putting the distracted reading first and then the undistracted first, but do not let the listeners know beforehand which is which. From listeners get reports as to the words emphasized, as to subjects and predicates, as to words that bear an important relation to the significance of the text. The operator can study the passages and invent questions to fit the case. Many trials would be needed to reduce the results to uniformity; but they surely would be profitable of good results. If a dozen men should take up this problem and work on it for a year or so, we should have some interesting light on the old, old question as to the occupation of the speaker's mind during speech. There is more in it than can be settled in an arm chair, I feel sure.

These "suggestions" are lengthening into a program, and that is far from the purpose. My only hope is that they have been explicit enough to show that the thing is possible—to those who care to try it. That we have to come to this is as certain, to my way of thinking, as it is that we shall keep our place in the world of education. In fact, I look upon the two as synonymous. No research; no favor in the eyes of educators. We occupy a delightful position among disciplines, but the test of its permanence is in our willingness to do in Rome what all good Romans do. We may long and sigh and pine; but presidents and deans are not moved that way, sad to relate. They are becoming pretty stony-hearted toward all who conclude not to make serious and persistent efforts to increase the kingdom of knowledge. I get just as peevish over some aspects of this as anybody possibly could; but we face a stern fact, and I for one am ambitious to see the profession make the best of the situation and play the game according to the rules; this year's copy. Only thus, I firmly believe, shall we know the truth; and the truth once found, will, in very deed, make us free.

## ACADEMIC PUBLIC SPEAKING<sup>1</sup>

EVERETT LEE HUNT

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WALTER PATER, in the introduction to his *Renaissance Studies*, says that the only value of the attempts to define beauty lies in the suggestive and penetrative things said by the way. It is the hope that some suggestive and penetrating comments may be made upon my remarks that gives me additional pleasure in presenting them. The late Josiah Royce, in the *Spirit of Modern Philosophy*, says a sharp distinction must be drawn between a student's person and his teaching. The person, he says, must be respected according as he meant well; the teaching must be tried without mercy. And I shall be content to have my statements attacked in such a fashion.

Professor Woolbert, in the *QUARTERLY JOURNAL*, almost dealt a death blow to all my ambitions by declaring that I am not modern. I belong to the age of Greece and Rome he says. It is a terrible thing not to be modern. It is almost the worst thing that could be said about a man. But I recall Bernard Shaw's remark about Ruskin. It was easy, he says, for Ruskin to declare that it is better to die than to do an unjust act, for dying is a very simple matter; but when it comes to determining what justice is, there is a difficulty. It is easy to condemn a man for not being modern, but to determine what it is to be modern, that is another matter. Professor Woolbert says the modern trend in education is toward specialization. In my articles I have opposed specialization. Therefore, I am not modern. What could be simpler? But Havelock Ellis<sup>2</sup> has pointed out how dangerous it is to assume that all the forces of society are moving in one direction. To say that the last few years have witnessed a trend toward socialism is true, but it is also true that the nearer we get to a common basis for the settlement of our property problems, the nearer we get to individual freedom in settling our personal problems. It is as true to assert

<sup>1</sup> Given at the Second Annual Convention of the National Association at New York, December 2, 1916.

<sup>2</sup> *Task of Social Hygiene*. Chap. XII.

that there is a trend toward individualism as toward socialism. And I wish to submit for your consideration the assertion that any movement toward specialization must be accompanied by a corresponding movement toward generalization. Analysis must always be accompanied by synthesis. The progress of the nervous system in its evolution from the rudimentary forms may be said to be a progress in specialization, in differentiation. New end organs are developed, and each organ has a function of its own. Put parallel with this increasing differentiation of the end organs is a grouping of cells into a complex central associative organ. And the animal which has the most highly specialized organs for the reception of stimuli also has the most wonderful brain for associating these impulses. Now I am well aware of the incompleteness of the argument from analogy, but I believe I am not carrying the figure too far when I say that the highly specialized sciences are the end organs of society for the reception of stimuli, and that this very development of the sciences makes all the more imperative an adequate associative and interpretive organ. Therefore, I beg leave to state that it is possible to be modern and yet refuse to become a specialist.

You may agree with me thus far and yet deny me a "place in the sun," because you will say that this function of interpreting and associating the facts derived from the specialized sciences belongs to philosophy. This is true. And yet you will agree with William James's dictum in his *Problems of Philosophy* that "a man with no philosophy in him is the most inauspicious and unprofitable of all social mates." No man who is a bore in private is likely to prove fascinating in public. All the technique in the world will not make a successful speaker out of an uninteresting mind. And a man with no ability to see the significance of things can never have an interesting mind. This associative, interpretive ability is a *sine qua non* of Public Speaking. Have none of you ever wept over the young man with a fine physique, an impressive voice, who has won the state oratorical contest and yet who, because of the narrowness of his intellectual horizon, will never again rise to such heights of fame?

But you ask, are we as public speaking teachers to assume the burden of the whole educational system? You will quote



Browning's Bishop Blougram's sentiment that "my business is not to remake myself,

But to make the best of what God has made."

Our business, you will say, is not to remake students, but to make the best of them as they come to us. You will probably agree with Professor Woolbert that our responsibility ends with the process of unloading—with the load we have nothing to do.

Which argument leads me to fundamental questions in the teaching of public speaking, or in the teaching of anything. When I become ambitious enough to attempt to formulate fundamental questions, I find they are likely to assume some such form as this: (1) Just what is the state of things as they are (2) What would be the state of things as they ought to be (3) How can we cause things as they are to become things as they ought to be? Now it is obvious that the nature of a journey is largely determined by where you start from and where you go. And it is equally obvious that we can never agree upon methods of teaching public speaking until we are agreed upon both our starting point and our aim. In answer to these questions I want to make a few observations which will serve us as a common starting point—or a common quarreling point. Under the state of things as they are, as matters of fact, I will state the following. (1) We are teaching public speaking for the purpose of producing public speakers. (2) We are teaching public speaking not as a part of a professional course, as for instance a course in salesmanship, a school for professional readers and impersonators, or as a part of the preparation of graduate students in professional training, but as a part of an avowedly liberal course of instruction. (3) We are teaching college or university students a small proportion of whom enter school with any active intellectual interests. (The proportion may vary with the culture of the college constituency.) (4) In spite of our liberal pretensions we are teaching in a period when specialization has proceeded to such an extent that many teachers are interested in little beyond their own subjects. Many teachers never dare to wander beyond their own subjects for fear of being considered unscholarly. The student gets very little encouragement in any department to increase his interest in any other department. Our college faculties are constantly losing in community interest.

(5) The actual result of this state of things as they are is that only an infinitesimal proportion of students at the time of their graduation have any desire for what Matthew Arnold called the disinterested pursuit of perfection.

From things as they are let us go to things as they ought to be. You will note that I have credited ourselves as teachers with what I consider legitimate motives under the heading of things as they are. Now if things were as they ought to be, the students who come to us would have a background of at least a moderate amount of reading and general information. They would be students with some definite desire for self-improvement, students with enough intellectual vigor to speculate occasionally upon the interrelationships of their courses, so that this beginning of a philosophic attitude would provide us with interesting minds to work upon. They would be students with enough energy to exercise their brains occasionally just for the fun of it, students with enough interest in public speaking to be willing to do hard and disagreeable work, if necessary. With such students we could look carefully to our methods. Our problem ought to be a problem of guidance with at least a part of the motive power furnished by the students.

In addition to the different type of students in this world of things as they ought to be, what a different type of faculty members we ought to have for a favorable development of students as speakers! Instead of the specialists who are careless of elegance in language, we would have men who would not accept papers written hastily, poorly, and incorrectly. We would have men who would demand intelligible and well spoken answers to questions, and every class where recitations are conducted would be a class in public speaking. An excellent presentation of this position has been made by Professor Judd.<sup>1</sup>

When the teacher of Public Speaking turns from his world as it ought to be to the world as it is, it is in much of Hamlet's mood when he exclaimed to his mother, "Look here, upon this picture, and on this."

Now if any one wishes to accuse me of being an impractical idealist I reply that the proof of my realism is that I desire to

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<sup>1</sup> *Psychology of High School Subjects*, p. 164.

base my teaching upon things as they are, and not as they ought to be. And every teacher who looks the situation squarely in the face must realize that a great part of the problem in transforming things as they are into things as they ought to be lies in (1) stimulating interest in Public Speaking as an intellectual pursuit (not merely to win contests) and (2) to act as a sort of associative department to establish relationships between the closed compartments of knowledge that make up a college course, and thereby do something to create what, for want of a better term, I have called an interesting mind. This we must do before we are ready to begin the teaching of public speaking in a formal way. To try methods before we have done this is a sheer waste of energy.

My charge against the technical expert is not that his methods and facts are not valuable or necessary, but it is that he tends to overlook the whole problem of arousing intellectual curiosity; the interests of his students are directed more to how they say a thing than to what they say. I should like to make a whole speech upon the subject of technique in college teaching, showing how a large amount of it violates every principle of psychology in regard to immediate and derived interest, and how it is a return to the Herbartian psychology. But the task assigned me is to point out somewhat specifically what is the field of what I have called in a previous article the general specialist.

In doing this I can only draw upon my own experience. I do not claim to have remotely approached the realization of the intellectual ideals I hold for the teacher of public speaking. I cannot even claim to have been to any unusual extent successful in my teaching. I can only set forth what I think a Public Speaking teacher ought to mean to college students and how I think a man may go about it to accomplish his end.

The freshmen at Huron are required to take Public Speaking two hours a week for the first half of the year. My first meeting with them is usually a written quiz—a general information test, an inquiry as to their interests outside of required studies, and as to their reading habits. Periodical reading is usually the first thing I emphasize and insist on. I hold them to account for a knowledge of the *Atlantic*, *The North American Review*, the *Nation*, the *New Republic*, *Literary Digest*, and *Current Opinion*.

In order that they may not read them with a feeling that they have done their whole duty in so doing, I assign many special articles in various other periodicals. I have them report on these, without notes. To have always on hand live material I find that I cannot do less than to read regularly in addition to the periodicals named the *Yale Review*, the *Unpopular Review*, a couple of the educational magazines, the *Scientific Monthly*, *Drama*, *Poet Lore*, *International Journal of Ethics*, a couple of art magazines, (the *Seven Arts* seems promising) the *Hibbert Journal*, and of course the *Century*, *Harpers*, *Scribners*, and the *Independent*. I make it a habit to brief and file away articles of exceptional interest; and I take my most valuable material from these articles, because I have some enthusiasm over them. It is idle to assign chapters in a book on the value of general reading if the teacher is not a constant living example of the pleasure of reading. I try to conduct the course in such a way that the freshman will come to know the joy of living with ideas.

This attempt to emphasize content and broaden the interests of the students has a bearing upon the critical methods of the teacher. I have found adverse criticism before the class usually does more harm than good. Flattery is even worse. I have found it most profitable to confine my own remarks largely to the subject matter of the speech. Add interesting bits of information which will make it evident that there is much more to the subject than the student saw. Or else ask for information in such a fashion that the student will see that you are interested in what he says as well as how he says it. It is necessary, of course, to keep technical points in mind: but one can so cover them that these points will never seem to be ends in themselves. Of course, to give an individual assignment to each one of say seventy freshmen, and to be sure that you are better informed on any one of the subjects than the student will be after he has completed his assignment, means a tremendous amount of reading for the teacher. But I am convinced that it pays. And if, at the end of the semester, the students have in a measure conquered their nervousness and self-consciousness, and if I occasionally see them reading good books and magazines just for the pleasure of it, I feel that the course has justified itself.

The second semester a three hour elective course is offered in the interpretation of literature. This course is usually elected by a small enough number to make informality and personal acquaintance possible. In this course I begin by emphasizing the joy of good talk. Conversation is presented as having all the possibilities of an art. Some twelve or fifteen essays on conversation are assigned. Stories of Dr. Johnson, of the Holland house, of the Lambs' Wednesday evenings, of the French salons, and various famous conversational gatherings are stimulating. Then for two or three weeks we read aloud in class a number of essays of the intimate conversational type, with particular attention to the colloquial elements of speech. Some few of Charles Lambs' essays are well adapted to this—though his sentences are quite frequently too long to talk well. Some essays I have taken from the *Spectator*, *Rambler*, *Tatler*, etc. A. C. Benson is a charming essayist of a chatty style. Holmes, Mr. Crothers, the contributors' club essays in the *Atlantic*—in a hundred odd and unexpected sources I collect these conversational essays. We never analyze them, except when they won't talk well. Then I have an excellent opportunity to emphasize the identity of the laws of speech and writing. In this period I usually get enthusiastic over the progress of the students. Then I attempt to stimulate a love for poetry. I use some of the material in Dr. Curry's books. My own selections are based on the psychological principles back of the attitude toward Dr. Fell. Old John Donne, Robert Herrick, Amy Lowell (occasionally), Browning, Edgar Lee Masters—I wander wherever I please, the whole aim being to persuade the class that poetry is to be loved and is worthy of serious study. Then I give a few lectures on elementary principles of esthetics and we discuss the various arts in their relation to each other. In my search for material for this course I have been led to the conclusion that the majority of books of selections published are a standing indictment of the good taste and literary knowledge of our profession. I have been compelled to waste many valuable hours making my own books with a mimeograph and loose leaf notebooks.

In the sophomore year I give a three hour elective in the Forms of Public Address. I do not depart much from the usual course of study here, except that I believe that oratorical style

is much better gained by assimilation, by a soaking in of the atmosphere of oratory, than by composition or analysis. I find the student will have his ambition stirred much more by reading the letters of G. W. Curtis written from Brook Farm than he will by analyzing a double climax. In the class debates I find that there is sometimes ground for the criticism expressed in a recent letter to the *Nation* (which the *QUARTERLY* answered) and which has been better expressed by Dr. Sheldon in his history of student life and customs.<sup>1</sup> It seems well, when winning can be lost sight of, to indulge occasionally in opinionative, interminable sorts of questions, in order to awaken the minds to the joys and dangers of the paradox—the kinds of subjects Stevenson mentions in his talk and talkers—the Great Man theory of history. Art and morals, Inheritance of acquired characteristics, etc. Here again a wide range of reading is imperative, for it has been my experience that a teacher who knows only the formal side of the debate loses the respect of the students. They come to think that he cares for nothing but form and then they fail to give form its rightful value. In these class discussions I always regard the acquiring of any new intellectual interest as of equal importance with improvement in formal argumentation.

The other two courses that I give, time will not allow me to discuss. In the junior year I give a Tennyson and Browning course, sometimes supplemented by other poets, and in the senior year a modern drama course. I find that the amount of reading demanded by these courses is so great that I cannot specialize. Perhaps, after another ten years, when my fund of accumulated knowledge has commenced to grow, there will be time for minute investigation. Until then, I fear I shall have to depend upon Professor Woolbert and his kind.

Professor Woolbert has accepted as a definition of a professor "one who finds and teaches truth." That definition seems to me to be almost a stroke of genius. But when I think of finding truth there often comes to me, instead of a vision of graduate schools these lines of Browning's Paracelsus:

"And men have oft grown old among their books  
To die, case-hardened in their ignorance, \* \* \* \* \*  
While, contrary, it has chanced some idle day,

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<sup>1</sup> *Student Life and Customs*, p. 210.

That autumn loiterers just as fancy free  
As midges in the sun, have oft given vent  
To truth."

Now, of course, I do not suppose that these "autumn loiterers" are going to solve many problem in the psychology of Public Speaking. But the fact remains that it just as necessary for the public speaker to be an autumn loiterer as it is to be an expert in psychology. I would not want to seem to be lacking in awe of the wisdom of the graduate schools, but one cannot read President Lowell's reports to the Harvard Overseers without a feeling that knowledge has not grown in proportion to the money and equipment placed at the disposal of students. To have the National Association, then, lay the stress upon research, does not seem to me to be the quickest path to recognition, to say nothing of service.

But if one will not be a specialist, absorbed in his own studies, to the possible neglect of students, shall he become altogether and wholly a pedagogue, extremely faithful and conscientious as a teacher, correcting with painstaking care numberless briefs, criticising keenly every effort of the student, and expending all his reserves of energy in making his students work? Such a one, I suppose, has his reward; but it is likely to be in heaven. And I am deterred by the conviction that we teach too much. I recall some of Gibbon's letters to his mother concerning the disgraceful laxity of instruction at Oxford while he was there, and then I think of the men that came from that period, and I begin to believe that the greater influences of a college or university are the voluntary associations with men and books. I do not mean this as an excuse for loafing; but somehow it seems to me to be greater to make an undergraduate want to make a speech than to tell him how to make it.

The men who influenced me most in my college days were men whom I never thought of as teachers, but as men. The President of our college says little about public speaking, but he is the most powerful influence toward the development of it, by his own example. You recall Professor Winter's dedication of his book to President Eliot. The teaching by example is always

more powerful than the teaching by precept. You remember the line in Browning's "In a Balcony"

"Let us be the thing they look at."

The climaxes of of George William Curtis are pretty largely meaningless without the life of George William Curtis, the style of Wendell Phillips, which was so ably analyzed in the last QUARTERLY, is only another reminder that "the style is the man." Oratory cannot be separated from biography, and the business of becoming a public speaker is too large to be bound within the limits of the specialist.

*C. H. W. to L. E. H.; a rejoinder.*

Mr. President, I take it that I am entitled to the first rebuttal. I hold in my hand a message from the future; first in the form of a card from the Congressional card catalogue, and, secondly, a review from, say, the *Nation*, or the *New Republic*. Permit me to read them. First, the card from the catalogue: "Hunt, E. L. *A Method of Teaching by Current Topics*; contributions to the problem of how to teach public speaking; New York, 1918; pp. 338." And now the review: "This admirable little text is a greatly needed compilation of the best in current literature, together with suggestions as to the method of applying it to the problem of making an interesting speech. It is especially valuable for encouraging good reading and effective expression in college students. Those who teach the subject of speech composition will hail with joy the results of Mr. Hunt's researches and experiments; and we are sure that the book will have a wide sale. Moreover, it will prove a great step forward in the attempt to discover the best method of teaching effective public speaking. Mr. Hunt's careful and painstaking investigations will go far toward relieving his profession of the common charge of indifference toward scientific treatment of its peculiar problems."



## STORY-TELLING IN HIGH SCHOOLS

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**T**HE story had its origin far back in the twilight of the world. Before the art of writing or book-making—even before the days of runes and picture writing—there were story-tellers, saga-men, skalds, rhapsodists, bards, and minstrels, who by word of mouth have handed down much of our literature through the centuries. They were unconscious teachers—members of the most ancient and honorable profession in the world. They taught history, religion, ethics, and folk-literature. Each was in himself an itinerant teacher and preacher.

Story-telling in its earliest days was the spontaneous expression of what the teller had heard and seen and felt. Insofar as the modern story-teller is actuated by the same impulse, so nearly does he approach the ideal and practise the most natural, entertaining, and artistic form of self-expression.

It is the function of the educator to inspire and stimulate in the young a desire for experiment. A spontaneous interest is better than one which is the result of prodding or coaxing. The youth cries out for self-expression; his feelings run away with him; his tongue trips in its effort to keep pace with his feelings; his voice is inadequate as an instrument of expression, and does not respond to his demands; he lacks the poise that is the result of experience and of harmony between mind and body.

Story-telling can be so presented to the youth that his interest in it will be spontaneous, and in its practise he will, if wisely guided, acquire a conscious self-mastery. Through the medium of story-telling the student acquires a conscious power to do a definite thing. This is poise. Many students lose self-consciousness to such an extent that they enjoy watching the effect of what they say upon their audiences. The telling of an occasional story by an occasional pupil, as an incidental part of the work of some other course of English, will not serve the purpose of a separate course in story-telling, where each pupil tells a definite number of stories each semester, and where the story as a dis-

tinct type of literature, with its unique and universal human appeal, is made the basis for numerous relevant discussions.

If the story-teller does not interest and entertain he has failed. A study of the means by which an audience is interested and entertained opens up for discussion and investigation the whole field of effective oral expression, including the technique of speech, voice development, manner before an audience, mental attitude of the speaker, and the choice and organization of material.

In one of the Chicago high schools there was an insistent demand from pupils in the oral expression department for classes in public speaking. An effort was made to differentiate the work of such classes from the work of oral composition and debating carried on in the English classes. Out of this effort there grew the formation of a number of classes in story-telling. The pupils in the audience found the stories more interesting than the average extemporaneous speech. The speakers themselves were more interested in the stories, and found them quite as easily available as material for speeches. At first there were strange programs. Lively discussions arose at once as to what kind of stories were suitable for telling. It was discovered that the humorous story did not always provoke mirth. On the contrary, it often met with cold disapproval. The fact that a good story is often spoiled by poor telling gave rise to a consideration of the story-teller's motive, and an inquiry as to the possible means by which he might accomplish his purpose.

All of the work of the first semester was devoted to meeting these problems. This work included a study of effective reading of prose and verse, and of the technique of speech, the details of which were taken up for discussion as the need for them became apparent to the pupil in his efforts to read a selection of his own choosing.

It soon became clear that story-telling had some inherent problems of its own. For example, many stories that one might enjoy in the reading did not move fast enough in the telling to hold the listener's interest. It was found that the story with a simple plot, a minimum of character analysis and detail, and a maximum of action and vivid description was the most satisfying to the audience. It then appeared that we must either

rewrite our stories in a form suitable for oral delivery, or find stories that already conformed to these requirements.

There came a sad day at last when there threatened to be no recitation because no one was prepared with a story. The very last pupil called upon electrified the class and threw it into a momentary uproar by telling the story of the Three Bears. He began it as a joke, but finding that I took him seriously, finished it in good form, as he had told it many times to his little sister. When he took his seat I expressed my interest and approval, and called attention to the fact that here was a boy who was getting daily practise in effective speaking.

At this point everyone wanted to talk at once. There was much discussion about the practical uses of story-telling. It was apparent that none of the pupils had any idea of the vast extent of the world's great store of story literature. Of its significance in the development of the mind and character of the individual and of the race they were, of course, entirely ignorant. Magazine stories, detective stories, jokes, and the like were for the time quite forgotten in discovering the significance of classical fables, folk-tales, fairy-tales, myths, legends, fanciful modern stories, and modern hero tales.

The home libraries furnished a limited amount of material for our use. Fifty carefully selected volumes of children's stories, loaned by the Chicago City Library, were of great value to us. The pupils were given a typewritten list of sixty inexpensive volumes, and were permitted to provide themselves with their own choice from this list. It is not easy for the uninitiated to make a wise selection from the flood of children's books now on the market.

My classes include pupils of such varied ages and temperaments that we cover the entire field of story literature in our search for material. We have tried various experiments, one of which was to have all pupils use the same book—a collection of popular short stories. This was unsatisfactory. Because of the limited character of material to be found in any one book, a pupil would frequently read the entire contents in his search for a story that interested him. By the time he had found one and was ready to tell it, the majority of the class, having also read the entire book, he addressed an audience whose interest was already

sated, and their bored expression was enough to dampen the ardor of the most enthusiastic member of the class. Eventually we undertook to collect a library of our own which would be suited to our special needs. Each pupil contributed the price he would ordinarily pay for his own copy of any book used by the class. My story-telling classes have contained more than a hundred pupils each semester, and for the use of each of these pupils there was soon available, at the cost of only a single volume, a carefully selected library of more than two hundred volumes of the best short stories, including folk-tales, fairy-tales, myths of many nations, and classic short stories for older people.

The members of my story-telling classes are allowed to exchange books as often as they like. At first each pupil avails himself of this privilege to the utmost, and I keep a record of these exchanges. Sooner or later he gets hold of the kind of intellectual food best suited to his appetite and powers of assimilation, and his final choice is generally a pretty fair indication of his temperament and the stage of his intellectual development. This is not always the result of his study of literature in his English classes, where much of the material given him as a matter of course is beyond his powers of comprehension. I recently heard a teacher of English say that she got better results with her freshman classes when teaching the unity of the paragraph, by using the physiology textbook as a basis for discussion, because the average book of literary merit prescribed for the course was beyond the comprehension of the average freshman, while the physiology textbook was written for freshmen, with careful attention to their degree of development.

In the nature of the case the story is not difficult to comprehend, both because of the appeal of the subject-matter, and because of the simple style used in its telling. This makes the story material especially valuable in helping the student to attain poise and freedom from self-consciousness. Many of the members of my classes have acquired a degree of confidence that enables them to do their work with both pleasure and enthusiasm.

Every home needs an intelligent story-teller—one who not only knows the ethical and educative value of stories, but who also loves the fascinating old stories for their own sake and takes delight in telling them over and over again, just for the joy of

giving pleasure of a fine and lasting kind. This need for the story-teller is being recognized in many quarters. Story-telling is given as a special course in all kindergarten colleges and library schools. In a nurses' training school in Michigan all the nurses are required to take a course in story-telling. Many normal schools offer special courses in this subject. Schools of training for social service and Sunday school workers have recognized the value, not only of a knowledge of story literature, but also of the ability to tell a story effectively.

I believe the teaching of story-telling in high schools is of primary importance because it gives the student a chance to take hold of the world's great literature at a place where it interests him, and furnishes a motive for reading. As the pupil's capacity for appreciation grows he will instinctively reach out for the kind of literature for which he is ready. It is astonishing how slight is the grasp many young people have of the ideas presented to them in their English classes, mainly because their background of general information in regard to things literary is so very thin. It is astonishing how few children know even *Æsop's Fables* and the Grimm and Anderson fairy tales. It is apparent that their minds need more simple and imaginative grist to grind than that to which they are accustomed, because the majority of them come back to my classes for a second and third semester of stories. In order to make the work both interesting and profitable to such students, it is approached from a somewhat different angle each semester.

Some of my pupils tell children's stories, while others use the great masterpieces of short-story fiction. The latter are more difficult to prepare because they must be condensed, and in many cases they lose their literary charm in the process. The more mature pupils, without suggestion from me, after some practise in telling children's stories, go back to the telling of stories for grown people with noticeably increased power.

The overcoming of self-consciousness is the first problem of the public performer in any line of oral expression. The teacher must deal with this problem indirectly in most cases. When a pupil suffers inordinately from this weakness, it is my practise to give a serious talk on the foolishness of being the victim of an idea—an unfounded fear. This should never be done until

the pupil, in an atmosphere of entire friendliness and sympathy, has been led to confess that it is only the general idea of ridicule that terrifies him. This fear is a spiritual weakness and must be dealt with in a reverent manner. With patience and sympathy such pupils may be induced not only to forget their fears, but to ask for vigorous criticisms of their work, and to accept such criticisms without resentment or loss of confidence. Pupils frequently tell me that they forget themselves in the interest they feel in the story they are telling.

The student learns new words and consciously improves his sentence structure as a result of his search for material and his practise in story-telling. The close study needed to learn a story and tell it with confidence brings about this result in spite of the fact that the pupil undertakes to learn only the salient features of the story and tells it later in his own words. The repeated exercise of learning a story and remembering the sequence of events is a good preparation for acquiring a mass of details on any subject. Simple as the story form is, the work involved in preparing for story-telling is not incomparable to that of the logical arrangement of the material for a speech. What these pupils really learn in the work I have described is the feeling for order in statement. Long before they are conscious of these improvements within themselves they are visible to me in their daily work. The more advanced students in my classes actually rewrite stories of real literary merit, which in their original form are too involved for telling. The rewriting of such a story, with care not to rob it of its plot or point, or of its literary style, is not a negligible task, and the style of the student certainly cannot suffer by such an exercise.

As a means of self-expression, of developing the individuality of the pupil, and of helping him consciously to exercise his power to address and interest an audience, I believe that story-telling has no superior. From the teacher's standpoint it has many advantages in the availability of a mass of varied and interesting material—material so varied and interesting that, with intelligent help from the teacher, each student must ultimately find unlimited matter to his liking, no matter what his temperament, or preparation.

Preparation is always power. He who would master the weakness born of fear must be ready. The story-teller must know his story so well that, when called upon to tell it, he can forget that he is looking into the eyes of an audience, in his study of the interest and pleasure he sees written there. To know a story well enough to tell it effectively it must have been learned a long time before the telling. It must sink into the mind and come to the surface insistently when the demand is made. It must come with an overwhelming desire to be expressed. For this reason I tell my pupils that they must always have at least one story ready to tell and another one ripening in their minds for future use. I never let a pupil tell a story if he feels poorly prepared, or if he is ill, or if he has taken a sudden dislike to his story. Under such circumstances he will not do himself justice and the experience may be fatal to his self-esteem. He must take pleasure in the telling of his story because his own feeling about his performance will be communicated to his audience.

Since the whole object of this work is not so much the production of a perfect performance as it is the spiritual growth and mental poise of the pupil he should be permitted to recite only when his performance will add something to his self-confidence and to his sense of accomplishment. I have asked my pupils if they consciously try to produce a definite effect upon the audience; if they study the faces before them as a teacher does. If a teacher sees a puzzled or bored look on a child's face she knows that she has either failed to make herself understood or has not won his interest. One pupil answered that she was obliged to think of her story and had no time to study the audience. Another said that she was sure her audience was interested because the pupils always sat right up and looked right at her when she began to talk. She added that if any pupil showed a lack of interest she tried to make that pupil look at her by talking directly to him. With a knowing smile she said, "It always works." This girl is not yet fifteen years old and is in her third year of high school. She has repeatedly held an audience of sixty-five children from five to twelve years old through a forty minutes program of stories—a feat that has often taxed the abilities of older and wiser performers. One boy on his first appearance before the class made a desperate effort to begin his

story, but his tongue was paralyzed. With a look of unutterable relief he finally muttered, "I give it up," and dropped into the nearest seat. After class I had a personal talk with him, making light of his fiasco, and advising that he prepare a short story for the next time. He thanked me cordially. When the class met again he asked me to be sure to call upon him for a story. I did so and he told an Æsop's fable with fair results. His second recitation was a fairy story. His third effort was a Greek myth. This increasing ambition was due to his rapidly growing self-confidence. He had won a tremendous spiritual victory. This boy was anything but shy among his classmates outside of school.

Story-telling has become a vital subject to many of my pupils whose interest in it has led them to study to become kindergarten teachers, children's librarians, and social settlement workers. They have needed no encouragement and but little direction from me to induce them to take advantage of opportunities to use their newly acquired power to give pleasure. They have told stories to children in the hospitals, the library, and recreation centers, the home, the Sunday school, and at children's parties. Story-telling in the home and at children's parties, especially, has acquired a new impetus.

My classes made an ambitious effort when they undertook to provide a daily story-hour for the children of a recreation center. The mothers of most of these children worked by the day and the children were not supplied with any organized play or other occupation to fill the hours after school. In pairs and threes my students arranged to provide half an hour of games, followed by half an hour of stories. The audience at this center consisted of from fifteen to twenty-five little girls between the ages of three and ten years. The programs were made out in advance and a careful list of all stories told was posted where all students could consult it. Numerous unprepared and uninspired ladies had made unsuccessful attempts to tell stories to these children, who had a delightfully independent habit of leaving without ceremony when their interest lagged. Because of these misdirected efforts the edge had been taken from their pleasurable anticipation, and it became necessary to use stories so powerful in their appeal that a new and livelier interest would be aroused. My story-tellers were stimulated to do a great deal of reading in order to find



just the right stories to serve this purpose, and the response on the part of the children was a joy to the girls who tried the experiment. These girls learned that they must hold the children by winning their attention and interest, not by commanding them to keep their seats. Otherwise the little audience arose like a flock of birds and fluttered noisily away. The children themselves at once realized that they need not listen to the old stories if they used their privilege of saying, "We have heard that before." In six weeks this group of children acquired to a remarkable degree the power to listen quietly. They soon dispensed with the games entirely, and begged for stories the minute the girls appeared. Within a month from the time this story-hour was established the list of different stories told had grown to more than a hundred. It is safe to assume that these girls had read more than five hundred stories in their search for this material. The size of this list and the fact that it was posted prominently in the classroom were undoubtedly important factors in stimulating the search for new stories. It may not be the best thing for little children to have new stories every day, but it is unquestionably good for the story-tellers.

The branches of the Chicago City Library are not always supplied with librarians who have the time to tell stories. This fact afforded an opportunity for several girls in my classes to prepare and deliver a series of story programs at one of these library branches. The audience here varied with the weather conditions, ranging from twenty to sixty boys and girls under ten years of age. The telling of stories of real merit to this group was a joy and inspiration to all concerned.

The preparation of the teacher of story-telling is never finished. On the general subject of story-telling there are from a dozen to twenty books of varying degrees of excellence. They deal chiefly with the question of what stories to tell in the home, the kindergarten, the library, and the school. The problem, however, is as much one of adapting the stories to the age, experience, and intelligence of the child as it is a consideration of his accidental place in his environment. The teacher of high school pupils should not only be familiar with all these points of view, but she should also know the special problems of the story-teller, and be familiar with stories most certain to

appeal to boys and girls in their social and club life. To know the mass of literature available for all kinds of situations is the work of a lifetime, for it includes the entire history of the human race. The teacher of story-telling cannot be too thoroughly acquainted with the subject of child psychology from the kindergarten age through the age of adolescence. She will also need a thorough preparation in the practical technique of oral expression, because she must furnish constructive criticism in order to get satisfactory results. This preparation may be acquired by private study with specialists, and by attendance at one or more of the better schools of expression. From this point the teacher must work out her own salvation, for in no school of expression is our public school problem as yet fully understood or appreciated, and it is certain that no one private instructor will grasp the high school teacher's peculiar problem.

Story-telling has a technique of its own, whatever its purpose. The teacher of story-telling should not only have a definite standard by which to judge the performances of her pupils, but she must possess constructive ideas and be ready with a remedy for every weakness shown by them. In my classes I encourage mutual criticism by the pupils. If these criticisms are unjust or unintelligent or if they touch upon some physical defect that is beyond the control of the performer, I remove the sting by criticising the critic and showing the class wherein lies the value of learning to criticise, as a basis for intelligent self-direction. The constructive ideas are always kept uppermost in these discussions, otherwise criticism might easily become carping and destructive of the self-confidence and ambition of the speaker.

Whatever else may be included in his motives it is certainly the desire of the story-teller to be impressive. He may wish to provoke laughter or stir the sympathies; to inspire a wish to be generous, or clean, or prompt, or gentle, or honest, or kind to animals, or considerate toward age and weakness; or he may seek to stimulate the reading of certain books on heroism, or travel, or adventure. All educators should be interested in story-telling, for it is the most effective vehicle available for moral and spiritual instruction. One must never forget, however, that the first story-tellers were entertainers, not teachers.

The rights of the story as a legitimate appeal to the imagination and to the emotions must not be lost sight of in an effort to make it serve a utilitarian purpose. As I use story-telling it affords an ideal means of self-expression for adolescent youth. More than a third of the total number of pupils who have taken my story-telling course have made frequent use of their newly acquired art before real audiences outside of school.

Story-telling is the oldest and most natural outlet of humanity for the expression of fancy, of ideals, of all those intimate experiences which lie close to the heart because they are life itself. The interest in the story goes back to the times before the existence of articulate language, when men made rude attempts to write in pictures upon the rocks a record of their deeds, and to this day everyone loves a good story.

## A QUESTION OF METHOD<sup>1</sup>

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JAMES LAWRENCE LARDNER

Northwestern University

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*Ladies and Gentlemen:*

WHEN I came into this assembly room yesterday President Winans greeted me as the man of mystery, because my subject, "A Question of Method," is so conveniently broad that I am free to talk about most anything from the method of teaching infants how to walk to the method of teaching college seniors how to make a creditable after-dinner speech. You know from the program which he sent you some weeks ago that the indefiniteness of my subject got hold of him for he states that "what Professor Lardner is concealing under his title is a mystery." And now in introducing me he places emphasis again on the mystery of the subject. This should certainly suggest to me that my first duty is to tell you what I mean by a question of method, so I shall reveal the mystery at once.

The specific question to which I wish to direct your attention is this, the practical problem of teaching students to influence an audience. Please note that I say *practical* problem. My experience leads me to make this limitation of the question. I find that a mere knowledge of the principles and theories of speech-making will not give skill in speaking. It is the old problem that confronts every teacher who desires not only that his students shall know *how* a speech should be made but that they shall be able actually to *make* a good speech. This semester I have a class of fifteen young people who can tell me all about the laws of attention that are specifically applicable to the construction of a speech, for I have required them to read Professor Winans' excellent book in which these laws of psychology are clearly and tersely stated. But not more than two of the fifteen can make a first-class talk that will hold an audience for fifteen minutes. This is no criticism of the text for it does

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<sup>1</sup> Given at the Second Annual Convention of the National Association, New York, December 2, 1916.

all that it was planned to do; it adequately discusses principles. These students must make a practical application of these laws to secure practical results in speech-making in the classroom. They know that, as a rule, an audience will involuntarily attend to the unusual, to the novel, to the unexpected, to the concrete rather than to the abstract, to the clear rather than to the obscure, and that the hearer will listen to anything that appeals to his wants and desires; but these facts and principles and many others which they must know and which they ought to understand thoroughly are not a part of their working capital. That is, all this information about what will hold the mind of a hearer is not usable. It has not yet given the student the interesting mind that Professor Hunt spoke about yesterday, the public speaker's mind that knows just that material and method of construction that will get hold of an audience. The question of method, then, to be still more specific is this, what can I do to get my students to choose the right speech material for a specific audience and so to arrange this material that it will hold the attention of that audience.

May I explain my viewpoint a little further? It may be well enough for the student of economics or for the student of history to wait until after graduation to learn to use his information in doing the work of the world, but I am fully convinced that one of the great purposes of a Department of Public Speaking is to get practical results now, *skill now*. I can hardly ease my conscience on this matter with the theory that if the student learns the principles and laws of speech in the classroom, all this skill will come to him some time in the future through his experience before men in real life. This half-truth should not lead us into a neglect of the practical side of our work. If we limit, our speech-training to give the information about speech-making, in my judgment we omit one of the great purposes of our work—training for skill. I make a special point of this just now because of what we are doing at Northwestern University in enlarging our work in Public Speaking. We are adding some courses that are largely informational and we are changing others to meet the desire of the scholar who wants not only the ability to *do* but an adequate explanation of *why* he does so and so. In our readjustments we hope, however, that

we shall not reduce our work merely to discussions of *how* to influence an audience and of *how* to use the voice but that we shall always strive to teach men and women to speak with power before a crowd.

Let us now turn to the problem of teaching students to influence an audience, the definite question of method. What kind of work in the classroom will aid in securing practical results? My answer to this question is a report of what I am now doing in one of my classes to give students skill. In this particular course, in the first semester, the purpose is to study the question of speech-making largely from the standpoint of controlling the mind of the hearer. The query constantly before the student is, how can I master the mind of the listener. To find a full answer to this question, we go to psychology and study attention, emotion, action, and the crowd; but you will remember that the point of method before us is that of making a knowledge of psychology result in skill.

One of the first things I do in this class is to give a practical demonstration of the fact that some speeches hold attention better than others. This is the test. I read part of a speech to them, usually the introduction, then a little later in the period read it again omitting the elements that have power to grip the mind. For example, upon several occasions I have used the opening of a college oration on "Insurgency." First, as far as possible I make my approach to the class the natural approach of a speaker to an audience. That is, I do not announce a test of any kind, or that I want their attention for any special purpose, but I say simply that I shall use a part of the hour in presenting a few paragraphs from an address on "Insurgency." Then I deliver the following introduction.

"In the Senate of the United States there was a battle. Two opposing forces met. Each had its leader; one from the West—simple, earnest, powerful, direct—a man of the people; the other from the East—silent, austere—the careful steward of corporate combinations. The man from the West, the late Senator Dolliver from Iowa, threw down the gauntlet in these words: 'I hope the Senator from Rhode Island will remain here a few minutes.' Mr. Aldrich evaded, 'I am engaged elsewhere.' But Dolliver pressed him further, 'I want to engage you here.' And then it was that Dolliver pointed out with irresistible satire, that Aldrich's knowledge of the tariff was based upon data presented by the hired experts of protected industries, that the

schedules of the Payne-Aldrich bill were based upon information furnished by the tariff beneficiaries. Jonathan P. Dolliver is dead, but the spirit of Dolliver lives. It is the spirit of the West. It is the spirit of the frontier—the spirit of progress. And as this spirit of western democracy moved Dolliver, so it is today taking hold of a people, North and South, East and West. It is the spirit that dominates the Insurgent movement.

My theme tonight is Insurgency! Insurgency is a movement to overcome oligarchical tendencies which threaten our Republic. A battle of the people with a monster—artificial, corporate, soulless—with a monster that knows no party lines, that has its Aldrich in Rhode Island and its Bailey in Texas; its Gallinger in New Hampshire, and its Taliaferro in Florida; its Smoot in Utah, and its Johnston in Alabama; with a monster that wields a mighty power and threatens to control our government. Insurgency is a struggle of the people, by the people, for the people, to gain control of government.

I wish to say right here, that Insurgency does not threaten business as business. It welcomes and lends hearty encouragement to combinations that systematize industry and aid in production. But Insurgency is hostile to any form of organized business which seeks to control government and oppress the people."

After speaking these lines, I say to the class that I should like to introduce this subject again. Then I read the introduction omitting the first paragraph. Immediately after the second reading I ask the class to write a description of the effect on them of the two introductions. I look over the papers and report at some later meeting. A year ago, in a class of ten all said that the first introduction held attention better. Some of the reasons given were, the clash of opinion, the vividness, the action, the suspense, the concreteness, and the intimate personal episode. This fall in a class of twelve, nine stated that the first reading held the mind better.

The following are typical comments given on the first introduction. "It aroused curiosity as to the outcome of the episode." "The incident of the controversy between the eastern and western Senators serves to arouse interest; it makes a human appeal, in contrast with the rather formal style of the second introduction." "I was immediately interested by the speaker bringing to our view the fact that there was a fight on in the Senate." "The first introduction aroused my curiosity. I felt an interest in the controversy in Congress." This test serves to impress upon the students the fact that there is a real, practical problem of controlling the mind of a hearer, and that their

own testimony supports the fact. After a few exercises of this kind, they approach the psychological study of the audience with zest and with definiteness of purpose.) My problem as a teacher is now to help them apply the principles of attention, of emotion, and of action, to the task of making effective speeches. The following are some of the practical means used to accomplish this end.

When we were studying the laws of attention a few weeks ago, a certain United States Senator came to Evanston to deliver a campaign speech. This was a good opportunity for practical study, so I required each student in the class to attend the meeting and to write a brief report on how the Senator managed his audience. Here are some of the class comments. "About one fourth of the audience arose and left. Many of those who remained were asleep. Personally, I had to force myself by frequent exertions of will power to listen." "The speaker did nothing to rouse interest but everything to put his audience asleep. He spoke in a monotone with an occasional shout. He read occasionally and took his time in finding the place. It was a lecture without life, without fight, without enthusiasm. I stood it as long as I could and then left to sleep in bed." "He held attention best when using illustrations to show the miserable conditions in Mexico. This was due to the fact that he was specific." "He held attention very well during the first half of his speech but failed during the latter half." "One reason for his failure to hold attention was the fact that he would make an abstract statement, and add that he would give the illustration later; then when it was given the audience would not be able to connect the illustration with the abstract statement." "The speaker talked a great deal about abstractions, such as national obligations, liberty, and the rights of citizens."

These reports opened the way for a free, lively discussion of the speaker and of his audience. As you see, the general verdict of the class was that the Senator was dry and uninteresting and that he had an abstract, lumbering style. At the time of our first class discussion, it seemed rather strange that the Senator should make such a dismal failure. He was a Republican in a Republican stronghold, before an audience of at least three thousand people. They were eager to hear him



discuss a live topic that he knew from personal observation—"Mexican atrocities, and how the Wilson administration had bungled affairs in Mexico." We afterwards learned this. The Senator had been a decided success in his speech on the same subject before the Hamilton Club in Chicago. But his political advisers said to him, "Senator, tomorrow night you speak before a high-brow audience at Evanston. Beware! Adapt yourself."

He evidently followed this advice with the result that in his effort to be logical and intellectual he was abstract and uninteresting. This experience of the class was very, very valuable, for it served to impress upon them more deeply than a discussion of our textbook or the lectures of the instructor, the fact that a public speaker must know his audience and adapt his material to it. Principles and theories get into the real life of the student when he sees them applied in the world about him. Such studies as these make the work of speech-making a life problem. When the young student understands this, his interest grows. He can readily see that whatever he does in the future—whether he preaches or teaches, whether he sells bonds or beef-steak—he will be at the task of influencing men. He sees that this specific work of the classroom is a definite preparation for the business of living among men—the business of controlling the other fellow.

There is really no limit to the practical work which may be done with students if the teacher is awake to the speaking of the day in politics, in the Church, and in society everywhere. In this course we study the problem of influencing men as it is now, not as it was with Demosthenes or Webster. For example, last January President Wilson made a speech-making tour of the West to talk preparedness. His speeches were reported in the Chicago papers and thus gave us a good chance to study how he adapted his material to different audiences. We could study what he said at Milwaukee that seemed to fit the crowd there; what he said at Chicago that was especially appropriate, and what he said at Des Moines that was particularly adapted to that locality. After the class had examined these speeches, my directions bore added weight. It meant something definite for me to say to Mr. A. "Write a speech to get money from the audience of the First Methodist Episcopal Church of Evanston for the

slum sufferers of Chicago," and to Mr. B. "Write a speech to secure funds for the same people from an audience in a small rural Church one hundred and fifty miles south of Chicago."

There is another effective class exercise that I take great pleasure in and that the students really enjoy. I frequently require them to speak before an audience composed of students from other classes in the Department. A week ago yesterday three of them spoke to a group of seventy-five on subjects of their own choice—Mr. A. on the hackneyed topic—"The Value of a Purpose," Mr. B. on "Burns of the Mountains," and Miss C. on "Irrigation in Utah." The problem before them was this—hold the attention of the audience for fifteen minutes. I desired not only that the speakers should have the experience of appearing before an audience other than the regular class but that they should know the effectiveness of their speeches from the testimony of the listeners. To accomplish the latter purpose I gave the following directions to our student audience. "First, as far as possible let your attitude be that of a hearer under ordinary circumstances when he listens to a man talk on a topic of the day. Second, write a brief review of each speech after you leave the room. State what you like about it and what you do not like about it. If you haven't anything to say do not invent something. Hand in your report to your instructor in Public Speaking at the next regular class session. Third, which speech do you like best? Why?"

Note that I did not ask them definite questions—such as which speech is the most interesting, which holds your attention best. It seemed wise to leave them free to say what they wanted to say in their own way. Notwithstanding this caution an objection to these directions may still be raised. It may be urged that they place upon the hearers a slight responsibility which might lead them to give attention to the speaker irrespective of the merits of his address. My experience is, however, that when these directions are properly guarded they do not interfere materially with a free report upon the effectiveness of the speech. Better results might be obtained by making the requests at the close of the program instead of at the opening. Then the hearers might be more likely to have the attitude of an audience under normal conditions.

Eleven of the eighteen reports examined voted for Mr. A. who talked about "The Value of a Purpose" and seven for Mr. B. whose subject was "Burns of the Mountains." Their comments are interesting and will be decidedly suggestive to the class at our meeting next Tuesday. The following are some of the most valuable comments on Mr. A.'s work. "Mr. A.'s speech interested me very much because it applied so well to me. It made me think and think hard." "His speech had a point to it—directly concerning us as young college students." "Mr. A.'s speech was interesting and sound. His examples were interesting and his thought had good unity so it held my attention." "His subject was interesting and I could follow him with little effort." "The examples and quotations were appropriate and interesting." "His subject was the most difficult and yet he handled it most successfully." "He seemed to take an interest in his subject, while the other speakers seemed to be talking only as a matter of routine." Here are some of the characteristic remarks on the work of Mr. B. "Mr. B. had a delightful way of beginning. His audience immediately felt in sympathy with him." "Fine introduction!" "The introduction seemed to be the best part of the speech." "Humorous tales were very refreshing to the listener's mind." "At first he was interesting and his voice was pleasant but his speech became monotonous." "The delivery was too lifeless." "He did not show enough energy. He seemed rather listless." "I would even say he was lacking in pep." The following indicates the impression Miss C. made upon the audience. "The speaker had to deal with a dry subject but to make a dry subject worse, there was too little preparation put on it. The speech was incoherent." "She seemed to be 'fussed' and didn't say what she meant to say." "Her speech soon became a bore. She gave a mass of statistics all of which were uninteresting." "Uninteresting at four-thirty P. M."

The judgment of this student audience was good. Mr. A. held attention best throughout his speech because he presented vital, concrete material in good form and because he spoke with vigor. Mr. B. gripped attention in his introduction but he could not sustain it. He lacked life in his delivery. Miss C. was poorly prepared, her material was uninteresting and not well

arranged. Judging from my experience with other classes, I am certain that these students will read these reports eagerly and that they will profit by them. After seeing such pointed criticisms from an audience, students desire another public appearance for the simple reason that they want to make good with the audience.

Ladies and Gentlemen, I have reported some of the schemes I am now using in my attempt to solve the problem of teaching students to influence a crowd. I need not say that as a study in methods no elaborate system has been presented. That was not my purpose. I set out to tell you what I am doing to give young people skill in handling an audience. I shall be satisfied if my experience encourages others to keep vigorously at the practical business of teaching college students how to speak effectively.

## PUBLIC SPEAKING IN NEW ENGLAND COLLEGES <sup>1</sup>

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BROMLEY SMITH

Bucknell University

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**T**HE growing interest in spoken English may be one more of those educational fads which have afflicted the youth of America. This interest may become permanent provided it rest upon a sound pedagogic basis, and provided the teachers be qualified to give the necessary instruction. Have we at present a substantial basis and have we the qualified instructors? Before we can venture an intelligent answer to such questions, we ought to examine the present status. This being a special session of the New England Conference, the examination may be confined with profit to conditions as they exist in New England.

As a first step in determining the pedagogy of spoken English we will inspect the catalogues of the various colleges. Such an investigation may be helpful, unless we have lost faith completely in the veracity of catalogues.

Very shortly after beginning our researches we discover that the makers of curricula have not been unanimous as to the department in which vocal English should be placed. In twelve colleges it is included under the general heading "English." Five call the subject "Public Speaking." One labels it "Oratory and Voice Culture." Another just "Oratory." A variant is found in "Public Speaking and Oratory." In some of the colleges the students meet with "Reading and Speaking," "Spoken English," and "Rhetoric and Composition," "Science and Art of Expression," "Special English," and "English Language and Literature." Simmons College for women seems to give no course at all; while Holy Cross refers to the subject as "Elocution." Thus we find eleven different titles for the departments in which instruction is given in some parts at least of the field of reading and speaking.

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<sup>1</sup>Read at a special session of the New England Public Speaking Conference, Harvard University, August 16, 1916.

Turning next to the courses offered, we find a wondrous variety. For convenience, two groups may be made arbitrarily: one labeled Public Speaking and the other Interpretation. Under the first heading "Public Speaking" seems to be the favorite. With this title the teacher has great lee way; he can impart instruction in voice, platform deportment, interpretation, extemporaneous speaking, oral expression, oratory, study of speeches, forms of public address, elocution, declamation, and argumentation. The details of the courses, often mentioned, such as intonation, articulation, poise, clear thinking, gesticulation, and so forth, are so numerous that they need not be mentioned. Three of the colleges are not satisfied with plain "Public Speaking," for they offer "Advanced Public Speaking." One goes so far as to give a course in "Occasional Public Speeches."

A second favorite heading in New England is "Argumentation and Debate," although seven colleges give "Argumentation" separately. Six colleges mention courses in "Debating," two in "Debate," and one in "Advanced Debate." As a tempting combination one college presents "Oratory and Argumentation." Eleven institutions do not mention "Argumentation," among them being three of the women's colleges. For some reason "Argumentation" does not appear in the Harvard catalogue, although "Debate" does. In the Yale yearbook neither "Argumentation" nor "Debating" are mentioned. Yet at Harvard there teaches George P. Baker, author of the textbook on "Argumentation and Debate" which led the way toward the establishment of courses in our colleges. At Harvard began the annual game of intercollegiate debating with Yale. It is to be presumed that somewhere in the courses of Harvard and Yale, probably in the composition courses, instruction is given in argumentation.

Leaving this favorite line, we are in danger of being submerged by the variety of courses offered. At one college "Oral English" may be taken. At another the students are introduced to "Logical Speaking." There can be found plain "Declamation," "Principles of Oratory," and "Extemporaneous Speaking." One can take his choice of "Reading and Speaking," "Public Address," "Public Addresses," "The Forms of Public Address," "Oratorical Writing and Extemporaneous Speaking," and "Composition and Oral Expression." If the ardent student

is not satisfied, there are provided courses in the "History of Oratory," "Demonstrative Oratory," and "Forensic Oratory." All told, Public Speaking appears under twenty-three titles.

Swinging over to the interpretative phase of spoken English, we find a bewildering variety of attractive courses. One may be initiated into the mysteries of "Reading" or of "Elocution." If inclined to dramatics "Shakespeare" is ready, together with "Development of Dramatic Instinct," "Dramatic Action and Characterization," and the "Interpretation of Modern Plays." For those who are particular about the sound of their voices ample training is provided. The catalogues mention "Voice and Expression," "Vocal Expression," "Advanced Vocal Expression," "Imagination and Vocal Expression," "Voice Training," "Training in Speech," and "Voice Training and Expression," both primary and advanced. When the mechanism of speech has been sufficiently trained, it is presumably fitted for the interpretation of literature; hence the introduction of "Vocal Interpretation," "Interpretation of Literature," "Vocal Interpretation of Literature," "Vocal Interpretation of English Prose and Poetry," "Oral Interpretation," and "Interpretative Reading." In some of the colleges the discovery has been made that in addition to the voice the whole body is concerned in speaking and reading, whereupon a course in "Body and Voice" is developed, and another in the "Body as an Agent of Expression." Finally, one ambitious college offers a course in "Methods of Teaching Elocution and Oratory," a course which seems to be confined to coaching prize speakers and graduating parts. Glancing over the interpretative phase of the subject one discovers that twenty-two different titles are employed. By this enumeration we perceive that New England educators, in their attempts to describe the courses which use the speaking voice, have forty-five expressions.

Drifting now from the courses to the hours allotted for recitation, we find the catalogues revealing a striking lack of unanimity. Some colleges allot a course one hour a week for a semester, some two hours, and others three hours. Some permit one hour for two semesters, some two hours, and others three hours. One offers one-half an hour a week throughout the entire four years. Reduced to percentages, 44% of the courses

are granted one hour per week, 30% are given three hours, 25% receive two hours, and 1% is allowed one-half an hour.

When such remarkably different standards as to time exist we may be sure that the conditions for admission to the courses will also display great variations. In some of the colleges a course on the part of Sophomores and Freshmen, mostly Freshmen, is required. Only one college demands work of Juniors and Seniors. With a large number of the colleges some course is required, while the other courses are elective. In many, all the courses are elective. A few make the subject a requirement in certain departments. Finally, in giving credit several colleges offer courses for which half credit is given, while at least one college has in its catalogue a course for which no credit is given.

Holding in mind now the present chaotic status of the curriculum, we are ready to bear down upon the number of students that a teacher is supposed to instruct. Without access to the books of the colleges no definite information on this point can be obtained. We can, however, make inferences, probably faulty, based on the number of teachers employed and the number of students in attendance. It is interesting to note that one college with an attendance of 3300 has two teachers. Of these one must have some leisure, for he also teaches in a neighboring college. Many teachers of speaking fill in their spare moments by instructing in composition. The number of students admitted to classes seems to be unrestricted, except in one college where a division is limited to ten. A prominent institution assigns five teachers to 4500 students. Evidently no plan has been worked out in New England as to the number of teachers required or the number of students who should receive instruction, nor is there any agreement as to who should take the subject.

If this lack of plan and lack of agreement indicate academic freedom, then that desirable state is further indicated by the happy circumstance that the teachers have apparently had full control over the naming of their courses and in determining what they will teach and how they will teach. Typical cases are found in Dartmouth and in two women's colleges. Dartmouth offers courses in "Declamation," "Argumentation," "Debate," "The History of Oratory," "Demonstrative Oratory," and "Forensic Oratory." Apparently no attention is paid to voice development



or to the interpretation of literature. Turn now to the women's colleges. Here we note courses in "Vocal Expression," "Imagination and Vocal Expression," "Extemporaneous Speaking," "Body and Voice," "Body as an Agent of Expression," "Interpretation of Literature," "Voice Training," "Interpretation of Modern Plays," and finally "Shakespeare." A glance at the catalogues of these women's colleges would lead one to suspect that women take no interest in argument and oratory. From the titles of the courses and from the use of Elocutionary texts, one may infer that the teachers are graduates of schools of elocution. It is only fair to add that Mt. Holyoke, a woman's college, does offer a course in Argumentation; but Simmons College, also for women, gives no courses whatever. Wellesley College has the unique distinction of giving one laboratory appointment each week.

With these facts before us it ought not be impertinent to assert that in New England as a whole there is no pedagogic basis for the teaching of Public Speaking or of Interpretation. The college authorities apparently have not made up their minds in which departments the courses belong, they do not agree as to what courses should be offered, they are at sea as to who should take the subject, they do not know how much time should be given to it, they do not comprehend whether it is taught properly, and they have no way to determine whether the instructors are qualified to teach.

At first sight one would be inclined to say that a subject so chaotic in its pedagogy ought to be driven from the educational world. But another glance will reveal the fact that the world is tremendously interested in the human voice. Everywhere people are conversing, addressing audiences, reading literature, and interpreting dramas. Everybody admits that these things should be well done. We are therefore led irresistibly to the conclusion that the teaching of such a subject as Public Speaking and Interpretation should be placed upon a sound pedagogic basis and that qualified teachers should be provided.

At this point our work begins. We have the rare opportunity of developing a line towards which many other lines converge, a line which touches human life at innumerable points. As the first step in the huge task we ought to establish a minimum

course. In determining such work we must bear in mind the number of hours per semester or per annum and the subject matter to be taught. If we can settle upon this minimum course by joint action we will save the long see-saw of individual action which will probably produce in time the same result. When we have agreed upon the minimum we should place it before the proper authorities. Meanwhile we must let the educational world know through its journals and conferences that we are after a minimum. Judging by the fact that so many colleges have already exceeded our proposed modest minimum we can be quite certain that most of the backward institutions will grant the request.

But at this point, supposing our request be granted, a difficulty arises.—Have we the teachers who are qualified to give the proper instruction? “There’s the rub.” Let us look matters full in the face. Let us acknowledge frankly that as the profession stands today we cannot supply enough qualified teachers. Most of us have not had the technical training required. Many of us have been drafted, or have drifted, into the work. Some have had the training given in the schools of elocution, others have been good debaters while in college, a few have swung from written composition in argument and theme writing to oral composition as a means of relief from the drudgery of pencil correction. We are aware that most of us have little real knowledge of the voice. We are shrewd enough to suspect that the teachers of singing cannot help us, for there seems to be little agreement among them as to method, and their best products seldom sing after they are fifty years old. If we had set out deliberately to become teachers technically proficient, where could we have gone for instruction? Not a college in the land provided the necessary courses. It was a strange situation that confronted the teachers of the “art of Arts.” One could find numerous courses in written composition, but few or none in oral composition. There would be offered a course in the “Lives, Characters, and Times of Men of Letters, English and American,” but none in the “Lives, Characters, and Times of Orators, English and American.” A student could devote hours to “Johnson and His Circle,” but not a minute to “Burke and His Circle.” Three hours a week with “Eighteenth Cen-

ture Periodicals," but not a second to "Eighteenth Century Orations." A half year could be spent on "Bacon," but no attention was given to "Chatham." "The Drama in England from 1642 to 1900" looked enticing, but what about "Public Utterances in England from 1642 to 1900?" One could listen to lectures about "Emerson" for weeks, but never to lectures on "Webster." One New England college extends to the thirsty student forty-two courses dealing with German, without mentioning German oratory. Page after page of its catalogue is filled with courses concerning the writings of the French, Italians, Spaniards, Poles, Russians, Irish and Welsh, without mention of their speakers. Turn to the educational departments. There, one could listen by the month to lectures on methods of teaching everything except speech. Where could one learn the psychology of the spoken word? What college taught a word about the physiology and hygiene of the vocal mechanism. Cicero said that the orator should be well grounded in philosophy and political science. What college in the world connects those subjects with the training of a teacher of oratory. Where could the undergraduate learn the history of the spoken word? A graduate craving a degree would spend years in composing a thesis on the "Cessation of Mytosis in the Caudal Appendage of an Albino Rat," while his roommate might be afflicted with stuttering. What department would dream of offering research work in Public Speaking? Professors advertised Seminars in Philosophy, Mathematics, History, Languages, and Ologies of all kinds, but not a man could offer a Seminar in the organ which every one of them used—the human voice.

Here then is a vast untrodden field—one that touches a dozen phases of thought. By making the investigations it will be possible to give the spoken word a literature as formidable as that of many other branches of learning. It is for us to create this literature. By doing so we may become the teachers of the coming generations. Our large universities with their facilities for scholarship should lead the way, first seeking in their own force qualified men; or failing in that, drawing from the country at large those who have done creditable work. Such a plan if undertaken will in ten years revolutionize the teaching of Public Speaking and Interpretation throughout New England.

If the larger universities should not feel capable of undertaking the task, or if they should not consider the subject worth while, be sure that the work will be attempted elsewhere. Already the premonitory rumblings may be heard in the west. That body of teachers which organized the Eastern Conference seven or eight years ago and courageously began the publication of the *Public Speaking Review* has already seen the New England Conference born; it has seen a national organization spring up, bearing as its first fruit a Quarterly Journal. It has seen "Oral English" introduced into thousands of schools. It is aware that hundreds of teachers are seeking instruction during the summer (1916), in the colleges, 225 at Columbia, 377 at University of Wisconsin. It has seen the publishing firms vying with each other in the effort to place textbooks on the market. It finds today a renaissance of interest in all phases of the spoken word. Slowly but surely the educational world is orienting itself toward the disciplinary values of speech. If we had at times thought the task insuperable, we now feel that there is a way, a sure and safe one, though we may have missed it. Meanwhile we must stand shoulder even as that

"One who never turned his back but marched breast forward,  
 Never doubted clouds would break,  
 Never dreamed, though right were worsted, wrong would  
 triumph,  
 Held we fall to rise, are baffled to fight better,  
 Sleep to wake."

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This paper was read at Special Session of the New England Public Speaking Conference on Wednesday evening, August 16, 1916.

A committee appointed by Chairman Corsa reported on Thursday afternoon the following resolutions:

1. "That the Summer Conference urge the New England Public Speaking Conference to recommend to the colleges of New England a minimum course in Public Speaking. We suggest that this course be entitled 'Elements of Public Speech' and that it be given three hours a week for two semesters." In commenting on the resolution the committee held that such

a course would permit much needed concentration on voice, delivery, organization of material, diction, etc. The resolution was adopted.

2. "That we urge the Conference to recommend that the larger colleges provide advanced courses of instruction for those who expect to become teachers and for those who may desire such courses."

3. "That we urge the Conference to recommend that opportunities be given for research work."

These two resolutions were tabled.

The following table shows in detail the work offered in the colleges and universities of New England:

| <i>Colleges</i>                          | <i>Department</i>         | <i>Courses</i>                               | <i>Sem.</i> | <i>Hrs.</i> |
|--|---------------------------|--|-------------|-------------|
| MAINE                                    |                           |  |             |             |
| Bates                                    | Oratory and Voice Culture | Thought and Expression..                     | 1           | 1           |
|  |                           | Logical Instruction in Speaking.....         | 1           | 1           |
|  |                           | Public Speaking.....                         | 1           | 1           |
|  |                           | Public Speaking.....                         | 1           | 1           |
|  |                           | Prize Speaking.....                          | 1           | 1           |
|  |                           | Development of Dramatic Instinct.....        | 1           | 1           |
|  |                           | Methods of Teaching Elocution and Oratory... | 1           | 1           |
| Bowdoin                                  | English                   | Public Speaking.....                         | 1           | 1           |
|  |                           | Argumentation and Debate                     | 1           | 2           |
| Colby                                    | Public Speaking           | Advanced Public Speaking                     | 1           | 2           |
|  |                           | Reading.....                                 | 2           | 1           |
|  |                           | Argumentation and Debate                     | 1           | 3           |
|  |                           | Public Speaking.....                         | 1           | 3           |
|  |                           | Advanced Public Speaking                     | 1           | 3           |
| University of Maine                      | Public Speaking           | Public Speaking.....                         | 2           | 1           |
|  |                           | Public Speaking.....                         | 2           | 1           |
|  |                           | Debating.....                                | 2           | 2           |
|  |                           | Advanced Debating.....                       | 2           | 2           |
|  |                           | Oral English.....                            |             |             |
|  |                           | Occasional Public Speeches                   | 2           | 2           |
|  |                           | No data                                      |             |             |
| Van Buren                                |                           |  |             |             |
| NEW HAMPSHIRE                            |                           |  |             |             |
| College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts | English                   | Argumentation and Debate                     | 1           | 3           |
| Dartmouth                                | English                   | Declamation.....                             | 1           | 1           |
|  |                           | Argumentation .....                          | 1           | 3           |
|  |                           | Debate.....                                  | 1           | 3           |
|  |                           | The History of Oratory..                     | 1           | 3           |
|  |                           | Demonstrative Oratory...                     | 1           | 3           |
|  |                           | Forensic Oratory.....                        | 1           | 3           |

| <i>Colleges</i>               | <i>Department</i>               | <i>Courses</i>   | <i>Sem.</i> | <i>Hrs.</i> |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|--|-------------|-------------|
| VERMONT                       |                                 |  |             |             |
| Middlebury College            | English                         | Public Speaking.....                                     |             | 3           |
| Norwich University            | English Language and Literature | Composition: Oral and Written.....                       | 2           | 3           |
| St. Michael's College         |                                 | No data  |             |             |
| University of Vermont         | English                         | Argumentation .....                                      |             | 1           |
| MASSACHUSETTS                 |                                 | Declamation  |             |             |
| Amherst                       | Public Speaking                 | Oral Interpretation.....                                 | 2           | 1           |
|                               |                                 | Oral Interpretation.....                                 | 2           | 1           |
|                               |                                 | Oratory and Argumentation.....                           | 2           | 1           |
|                               |                                 | Debating .....   | 1           | 1½          |
| Boston University             | Public Speaking                 | Elocution.....   | 2           | 2           |
|                               |                                 | Public Speaking.....                                     | 2           | 2           |
|                               |                                 | Argumentation .....                                      | 1           | 1           |
|                               |                                 | Debating .....   | 1           | 1           |
|                               |                                 | Shakespeare .....  | 2           | 2           |
| Clark College                 | Special English                 | Debating .....   | 2           | 3           |
|                               |                                 | Public Speaking.....                                     | 2           | 3           |
| College of Holy Cross         | Elocution                       | Elocution (four years)...                                |             | ½           |
| Harvard                       | English                         | Training in Speech.....                                  | 1           | 1           |
|                               |                                 | Public Speaking.....                                     | 2           | 2           |
|                               |                                 | Vocal Interpretation of English Prose and Poetry .....   | 2           | 2           |
|                               |                                 | The Forms of Public Address .....                        | 2           | 3           |
|                               |                                 | Debating .....   | 1           | 2           |
|                               |                                 | Public Addresses.....                                    | 1           | 2           |
|                               |                                 | Rhetoric and English Composition: Oral and Written ..... | 2           | 3           |
|                               |                                 | No data  |             |             |
| Mass. Agricultural College    | English                         | Argumentation and Debate                                 | 1           |             |
| Mass. Institute of Technology | English                         | Public Speaking.....                                     | 1           |             |
| Mount Holyoke                 |                                 | Vocal Expression.....                                    | 2           | 3           |
|                               |                                 | Advanced Voice Training                                  | 1           | 3           |
|                               |                                 | Argumentation .....                                      | 1           | 3           |
|                               |                                 | Vocal Interpretation of Literature.....                  | 1           | 2           |
|                               |                                 | Dramatic Action and Characterization .....               | 1           | 1           |
| Radcliffe                     | English                         | Public Speaking.....                                     | 2           | 2           |
|                               |                                 | Vocal Interpretation of Prose and Poetry....             | 2           | 2           |
| Simmons Smith                 | Spoken English                  | None   |             |             |
|                               |                                 | Vocal Expression.....                                    | 2           | 2           |
|                               |                                 | Advanced Vocal Expression .....                          | 2           | 2           |
|                               |                                 | Imagination and Vocal Expression .....                   | 2           | 2           |

| <i>Colleges</i>                  | <i>Department</i>             | <i>Courses</i>                                       | <i>Sem.</i> | <i>Hrs.</i> |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|--|-------------|-------------|
| Tufts                            | Oratory                       | Extemporaneous Speaking                              | 2           | 1           |
|                                  |                               | Body as an Agent of Expression .....                 | 2           | 1           |
|                                  |                               | Interpretation of Literature .....                   | 2           | 2           |
|                                  |                               | Voice Training.....                                  | 2           | 1           |
|                                  |                               | Interpretation of Modern Plays .....                 | 2           | 1           |
| Wellesley                        | Reading and Speaking          | Principles of Oratory....                            | 1           | 3           |
|                                  |                               | Argumentation and Debate                             | 1           | 3           |
|                                  |                               | Body and Voice.....                                  | 2           | 2           |
| Wheaton                          | Science and Art of Expression | Body and Voice.....                                  | 2           | 3           |
|                                  |                               | Shakespeare .....                                    | 2           | 2           |
|                                  |                               | Intellectual and Emotional Discourse .....           | 1           | 3           |
| Williams Worcester Polytechnic   | English English               | Volitional Discourse.....                            | 1           | 3           |
|                                  |                               | Argumentation .....                                  | 2           | 3           |
|                                  |                               | Argumentation .....                                  |             |             |
| RHODE ISLAND State College       | Rhetoric and Composition      | Argumentation .....                                  | 1           | 2           |
|                                  |                               | Interpretative Reading....                           | 1           | 1           |
|                                  |                               | Debating .....                                       | 2           | 1           |
|                                  |                               | Oratorical Writing and Extemporaneous Speaking ..... | 2           | 1           |
|                                  |                               | Elementary English-Composition and Oratory           |             |             |
| Brown                            | English                       | Debate .....   | 1           | 3           |
|                                  |                               | Public Speaking.....                                 | 2           | 3           |
|                                  |                               | Advanced Public Speaking                             | 2           | 3           |
| CONNECTICUT Agricultural College | Public Speaking               | Public Speaking.....                                 | 1           | 1           |
| Trinity                          | English                       | Public Speaking.....                                 | 2           | 3           |
| Wesleyan                         | Public Speaking               | Vocal Expression.....                                | 1           | 1           |
|                                  |                               | Argumentation and Debate                             | 1           | 1           |
|                                  |                               | Forms of Public Address                              | 1           | 1           |
| Yale                             |                               | Public Speaking.....                                 | 1           | 1           |

For purposes of comparison I append the courses announced by the University of Wisconsin.

|  |                 |   |   |   |
|--|-----------------|---|---|---|
|  | Public Speaking | For undergraduates                                      |   |   |
|  |                 | A. Composition Courses                                  |   |   |
|  |                 | 1. Argumentation .....                                  | 1 | 3 |
|  |                 | 2. Argumentative Addresses (written argument) .....     | 1 | 2 |
|  |                 | 3. Composition of Public Address .....                  | 1 | 2 |
|  |                 | 4. Advanced Composition and the History of Oratory..... | 1 | 2 |
|  |                 | B. Courses including delivery                           |   |   |

| <i>Colleges</i> | <i>Department</i> | <i>Courses</i>  | <i>Sem.</i> | <i>Hrs.</i> |
|-----------------|-------------------|---|-------------|-------------|
|                 |                   | 1. Practical Public Speaking .....                      | I           | 4           |
|                 |                   | 2. Extemporaneous Speaking .....                        | I           | 4           |
|                 |                   | 3. Debating .....                                       | I           | 2           |
|                 |                   | 4. Formal Oratory.....                                  | I           | 2           |
|                 |                   | C. Interpretation                                       |             |             |
|                 |                   | 1. Fundamentals of Vocal Expression.....                | 2           | 3           |
|                 |                   | 2. Interpretative Reading .....                         | 2           | 2           |
|                 |                   | 3. Dramatic Personation .....                           | I           | 2           |
|                 |                   | D. Voice Training and Correction of Speech Defects      |             |             |
|                 |                   | 1. Voice Training and Phonetics .....                   | I           | 2           |
|                 |                   | 2. Correction of Speech Defects .....                   | I           | 2           |
|                 |                   | 3. Speech Clinic for all students                       |             |             |
|                 |                   | For undergraduates and graduates:                       |             |             |
|                 |                   | 1. Teachers' Problems—In Reading and Drama              | I           | 2           |
|                 |                   | 2. Teachers' Problems—In Speech Making and Debate ..... | I           | 2           |
|                 |                   | 3. Correction of Speech Defects .....                   | I           | 2           |
|                 |                   | For Graduates Only:                                     |             |             |
|                 |                   | 1. Seminar in Voice and Speech.....                     |             |             |
|                 |                   | 2. Seminar in Rhetoric and Oratory.....                 |             |             |



## THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF EXPRESSION

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IN READING over the many excellent articles which have appeared from time to time in the *QUARTERLY JOURNAL* I have been struck with the attitude assumed by most of the writers. It combines a frank recognition of the limitations which have hampered us in the past with a sincerity of purpose and high resolve for the future. We all recognize the fact that in academic circles expressional work has never been accredited with much educational value. In too many instances a distinctly cold reception has been given the presumptuous individual who dared assert that it *had* any educational value. "Expressional work! What does it amount to? It has no place in the curriculum of a college; it is only a nice accomplishment; a mere decoration of the pediment of the temple of learning." So said the philosophers, and, because they assumed to speak with authority, it became an axiom. Teachers of expression have too often tacitly acquiesced in this assumption, even when they inwardly rebelled against it; and since there was little or no team-work, each man followed after his own expressional gods, lacking opposition, the idea became a fixed planet in the solar system of education. In these latter days, however, a change has taken place. The formation of this association has unified the interests of the teachers, and the academic world seems to be getting new light on the subject of expressional work. This is due very largely to the fact that the scientific study of the mind has laid an enormous amount of obsolete psychology on the shelf, and among the things so relegated was the old idea of expression. The precise nature of this change has so vital a bearing upon our subject that I shall be forced to discuss it somewhat in detail.

Let us have clearly in mind the two things which we wish to consider: first, how did expression, which we believe to be so fundamental in all education, come to be accorded the lowly position which it has so long occupied? and second, viewed in

the light of the teachings of the new psychology, to what may it aspire?

The answer to this first question is found in the conception of education which arose from a theory of mind and knowledge held by the old school of philosophy. According to this theory, man's supreme glory was to be a rational being, "to know absolute and eternal and universal truth." Knowledge, erudition, was the *summum bonum* of education. A thing was good or bad, true or false, *per se*. Much was made of the distinction between the sciences and the arts, the idea being that education was fundamentally concerned with the sciences, and that the arts were accomplishments for those who had a taste for them. The use of thought for practical affairs was a minor consideration. The mind was regarded as a static affair, a sort of reservoir which was to be filled with knowledge, and the aim of education was a "well-stocked mind." It is easy to see that so long as this state of things continued, the situation, so far as expressional values in education were concerned, was hopeless. There were no expressional values in education.

One of the most distinctive notes in the philosophy of today, however, is the thesis that there is no such thing as "absolute truth" but that a thing is true only when its use is considered, that knowledge is never an end in itself, but always a means to an end, and that (thinking is only a servant in the interests of the practical means of life.)

This position in philosophy is indicative of the whole trend of thought in the educational world. It constitutes the true standard for educational values, by which all branches of learning must be measured. Underlying it all is the conception of mind as presented by the scientific psychology of today. No single truth in modern psychology is better assured than that of the instinctive basis of mental life. In fact, the whole of our mental life, with its rich and varied systems of interests, is an outgrowth from these instinctive roots. Certain native reactions which we call instincts dominate our lives from childhood to old age, modified by culture, trained and guided, but always there as the motive force for much of our lives. Among these are the sex instinct, the fighting instinct, the play instinct, the constructive instinct, the acquisitive impulse, and the fear

instinct. Instincts may be defined as certain inborn pathways of nervous currents which have as their functional correlate inborn motor tendencies.

To illustrate this let us imagine a telephone exchange opened to the public with a large number of connections already made. These correspond to instincts. A message spoken into the transmitter of one instrument will, through the connections already made at "central," be transmitted to the other instruments with which it is connected, the outgoing wires being, of course, the motor nerves. The complex mental states which we call emotions have an instinctive basis and, as Dr. Blanton has demonstrated in his admirable article on "The Voice and the Emotions,"<sup>1</sup> they have a direct effect upon the physiological organism.

The child then is born with inherited tendencies to behave or perform in a certain way. Locked up within it at birth are the laws which are to determine its behavior. This word "behavior" is the most fundamental term in modern psychology. We may define it as the typical characteristic made up of action (and when we say action we may mean conscious thought processes, speech, or bodily action) which an organism is constituted to carry on, just as the chick the same day it is hatched responds instinctively to the stimulus of hunger and pecks the grains of wheat, and the human child performs the complicated process of drawing the milk into its stomach.

When behavior begins it brings in its train a stream of conscious experiences. Indeed the psychologists tell us that consciousness itself is the result of the interaction of the behaving organism struggling against its environment, and they go on to say that thinking is but a practical device; so long as pure instinct is sufficient to enable the organism to overcome obstacles which may arise there is no necessity for thinking, but when instinct proves inadequate, thinking comes in to help out. Clearly then we may determine the nature of an organism by determining the quality of its reaction in the face of opposition furnished by its environment. The characteristic output of the human mind is science, art, literature, morality, reli-

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<sup>1</sup> *The QUARTERLY* July, 1915.

gion, all the culture of civilization. They express the nature of man. In the animal, even at his best, there are none of these things.

When a behaving organism encounters opposition the inhibition of the impulse throws the action back into the organism and it is lifted up into consciousness. We then have what we term a problem. Thinking is nothing more nor less than an attempt to solve these problems. Bawden says that<sup>1</sup> "thinking arises primarily because of some obstructed activity. That it is the mediation or the attempt to mediate an interrupted act, the method of action coming to consciousness for the sake of revision in the light of new conditions"; and Hirn adds that the idea of a movement is always associated with an arrested impulse to perform it. Man as an intellectual being is known by his capacity to solve these problems, and all his achievements are but expressions of his inborn capacity, made manifest through his reaction upon his environment, or, to speak briefly, his "behavior." Intelligence, therefore, is simply a quality of a capacity to perform. It is ability to adapt means to desired ends. Says William James,<sup>2</sup> "Man, whatever else he may be, is primarily a practical being, whose mind is given him to aid in adapting him to this world's life. . . . The brain so far as we understand it is given us for practical behavior. Every current that runs into it from skin or eye or ear runs out again into muscles, glands, or viscera, and helps to adapt the animal to the environment from which the current came. Ralph Barton Perry, in his book on *Present Philosophical Tendencies* says:<sup>3</sup> "The mind is not a mirror which passively reflects what it chances to come upon: like an antenna it feels the way for the organism. Right or intelligent mental action consists in the establishment, corresponding to outward relations, of such inward relations and reactions as will favor the survival of the thinker, or, at least, his physical well-being."

Now the sum and substance of all this is: that man's intelligence has been and is incubated by expressing itself in the fact

<sup>1</sup> Bawden, *Principles of Pragmatism*, Page 153.

<sup>2</sup> James, *Talks to Teachers*. Page 25.

<sup>3</sup> Perry, *Present Philosophical Tendencies*.

of the opposition furnished by the many changes in his environment, and thinking is wholly instrumental in its function. Through the process of thinking, however, comes self-development and this is the aim of education. The mind is not a static affair to be filled with knowledge and the law of mental growth is not a process of receiving but a self-projection through doing—in short, self-expression. Even pedagogy today is saying the same thing. "Of the various forms of expression," says Dean Parker, "verbal expression is the most important, and results will continue to be unsatisfactory unless teachers take advantage of the opportunities for training in expression which are afforded by all subjects." How will a pupil best learn a new vocabulary? By taking words and using them. Why do we require a pupil to recite? Partly for the sake of the teacher that he may know how well the pupil has prepared the lesson, but more for the sake of the pupil, for expressing his thoughts he makes them his own. A "well-stocked mind" is valuable only because it gives the possessor potentiality for expression. Money has no use except to be spent, when it expresses itself in terms of buying value. So also knowledge is valueless except that it may be expressed to others. In his play of *Rosmersholm*, Ibsen has a character by the name of Uric Brendel whom he describes as being always on the point of doing some great thing, but who never really accomplishes anything. In the first act of the play this man says:

"My really important work no man or woman knows. No one except myself. I like to take my pleasures in solitude for then I enjoy them doubly—tenfold. So you see when golden dreams descended and enwrapped me, when new, dizzy, far-reaching thoughts were born in me, I wafted me aloft on their sustaining. I bodied them forth in poems, visions, pictures—in the rough, as it were."

*Rosmer.* "But you have written nothing down?"

*Brendel.* "Not a word. The soulless toil of the scrivener has always aroused a sickening aversion in me. Why should I profane my own ideals when I could enjoy them in their purity by myself?"

At length, however, Brendel decides to give to the world the great thoughts he has been cherishing. But it is too late, and in the last act he makes this confession:

*Brendel.* "Just as I am standing ready to pour forth the horn of plenty I make the painful discovery that I am bankrupt. For five and twenty years I have sat like a miser on his double-locked treasure-chest. And then yesterday when I opened it and went to display the treasure—there's none there! The teeth of time have ground it into dust."

This man in his violation of the source of mental growth lost the power to conserve what he did have. Because he had never expressed his dreams they were lost. "How often the world regrets the loss of achievements that men have contemplated—and never achieved! The inventions that the unpersistent have never worked out; the pictures that artists have rested content with seeing only in their brains; the books that have never got beyond their authors' outlines; the epics that poets have only planned; the hundreds of altruistic deeds existing only as impulses: how often mankind has regretted such losses."

The same principle, that expression is the mode of self-realization, is exhibited in the moral life. Consider the individual who must day after day see unsavory things and hear vulgar and obscene language, as is the case with settlement workers in our cities. It is possible for the individual to remain undefiled even amid such surroundings provided that he does not himself begin to express these evil things in his own action and speech. "There is nothing without the man that going into him can defile him, but the things which proceed out of the man are those which defile the man." (Mark 6:15)

According to this theory, therefore, the fundamental basis of all education is self-expression, and mental growth on the human plane is but a practical utilization of the various culture-media which we call the arts and sciences, as instruments in expressing the qualities of the life which we feel.<sup>2</sup> "The value of a trained mind," says Bawden, "consists in the fact that such a person has built up habits of reflective analysis and balancing of motor tendencies. And the value of all tools (and words are tools) and instruments of precision lies in the fact that they are the objectification of such habits. This is the significance of

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<sup>2</sup> Editorial in *Collier's Weekly*, December 2, 1916.

<sup>3</sup> Bawden, *Principles of Pragmatism*, Page 154.

libraries, museums, laboratories, and all the machinery of civilization and culture: they perpetuate for us the intellectual devices which have been worked out for us by our predecessors. All the thinking which goes on in the consciousness of individuals is dependent upon knowledge which is thus socially preserved in available forms. And this coming to consciousness of the technique of past action is the necessary condition of advance in knowledge." In no other way can we express the qualities of our life except through the instrumentality of these culture-media. Clearly then the first aim of education must be to aid the pupil in a coming to consciousness of this "technique of past action."

Mastery of such knowledge enables the individual to be shot upward, as it were, upon an elevator to the particular floor of science and art upon which we are living today. It is not necessary for every individual to solve for himself such problems as the law of gravitation, the construction of the telephone, or the value of antitoxins. These intellectual devices are our inheritance from the past. Their mastery, however, requires re-creation in the mind of the student, and laboratory work in the sciences is but the self-expression of the individual as he acquires this knowledge. But education does not end with the mastery of the tools. Having learned their use we must, if we are to have progress, utilize them in the solving of new problems, in all of which self-expression or self-realization is the end of education, as it is the end of life itself. Let us now come to Expression in the more restricted sense in which we use the term, meaning, of course, expression by voice and action, and see somewhat in detail what its educational value is.

One of the leading educators of this country, Dean Parker of Chicago, distinguishes between the following "Types of Learning":

1. Acquiring motor skill.
2. Associating symbols and meanings.
3. Acquiring skill in reflective thinking.
4. Acquiring habits of enjoyment.
5. Acquiring skill in expression.

It is self-evident that the character of the subject which is to be studied will largely determine the type of learning which is

to be used in its acquisition. In the first class he places gymnastics, manual training, laboratory manipulation, and "acquiring motor skill in the use of vocal organs"; in the second class, (associating symbols and meanings) the mastering of the vocabulary of a foreign language; in the third, mathematics, natural science, the social sciences, etc., which aid in "reflective thinking." Music, literature, and other arts, as well as sports and games, belong to the fourth type; and training in expression which is the fifth and last type presents, he says, "the central issue on oral and written composition, dramatization, painting, modeling, etc., and is the most important of all." Later on he makes the statement,<sup>1</sup> "that these types of learning are not entirely unlike each other and from the psychological standpoint the separation which we have made may be unwise. From the practical pedagogical standpoint, however, they are useful."

Accepting his viewpoint let us take up the various types one by one. However much we may disagree among ourselves with regard to methods there is one thing upon which we are all agreed, namely, that defects and bad habits in speech and action do exist in the average individual and that they should be remedied. Take, for instance, the case of wrong motor control in the forming of sounds and words. A problem has arisen which has not been correctly solved, an obstacle presented by the environment of the organism has not been surmounted, and the result is careless and faulty enunciation and articulation. The same thing is often true with regard to gesture and it should be the function of our work to aid the pupil in forming new coördinations which will give him freedom and accuracy of motor control both in speech and action.

With the second type (associating symbols and meanings), we are not so much concerned, but the third, which deals with reflective thinking, depends very largely upon expression. Reflective thinking is the very essence of the behavior-process of the mind. It is the attempt to do consciously what we cannot do unconsciously. "<sup>2</sup> So long as a person's experience flows on smoothly he does not put it into the form of a judgment, because

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<sup>1</sup> Parker, *Method of Teachers in High schools*. Page 270.

<sup>2</sup> Bawden, *Principles of Pragmatism*. Page 157.



he has no obstacles to overcome and hence no problems to solve. But when the present action ceases to be harmonious, we begin to look backward and forward. Experience polarizes into ends and means. As these interact and grow together in and through the thinking or judging process, a new experience emerges in which means and ends are reunified on a different level."

In the form of problem-solving, reflective thinking plays a large part in education as well as in social life. The so-called social sciences, economics, civics, sociology, etc., furnish many problems; and debate and oratory through the medium of which we express both the terms of the problem and its solution, have great educational value. The detailed and systematic study of problems, a solution of which the orator or debater advocates, trains the mind and makes for clear thinking. But the real value to the student lies not so much in his study as in the ability to express to others the results of that study. We have heard much discussion concerning the value of declamations. Is it not true that when the speeches of great orators are given by young students, the speaker must re-create in his own mind in some degree the thought and emotion which fired the master mind when the utterance was first given forth to the world. To the hearer the rendition by the student may appear crude, as a rough pencil sketch made by a child might to an artist, but the expressional values of this "laboratory work" to the pupil are incalculable.

The fourth type of learning is the cultivation of habits of harmless enjoyment. The proper enjoyment of our leisure time deserves large consideration in a scheme of education for persons who do not have to spend all their time in a struggle for existence. So obvious is the connection of our work with this type of learning that not a great deal need be said. The interpretation of literature, either in the home or upon the platform, and the opportunity for dramatic work in its many forms offers a wide field for our efforts. A number of years ago I had as a pupil a young man who was a particularly fine student, but who possessed little or no confidence in himself. We were planning to put on *As You Like It* and I cast him for the part of "Orlando." Other members of the cast seemed to think this choice unwise and the young man himself said that he felt incap-

able of playing the part and asked that I give him another and minor part. This I refused to do telling him that I felt sure he could play the part well. We gave the play and he made a decided "hit"; in fact, it was generally agreed that he had made a great success of the part. From that time on he was changed. Always a good student, he had never taken any active part in any extra-curricular activities, but now he became a leader in college. He went out for the football team and made that; in basketball and baseball he tried for the teams and made both of them, was elected manager of the glee club, and editor of the college annual. After his graduation he won a Rhodes scholarship and is now at Oxford where he is making a fine record. He has said to me many times, "I date my success in college from that night when as 'Orlando' I first discovered that I could really do something and do it well. That night I found myself." I have no doubt that many of you can cite similar instances which have come under your observation. For, as Professor Blanks says in his article on the "Dramatic Club," "The measure of educational profit in dramatic work is not the entertainment value of the performance to the audience; it is the educational value of the preparation to the players . . . for we are sincerely coöperating with a universal instinct to free a human being from the tragedy of self-suppression." The ordinary man does not know what is within him. Much has been written about the "new soul" of the French nation. No one knew the possibilities of France until the test of war came. In the expression of that soul she has re-created herself, but the mettle of the nation was unsuspected until the hour for its expression came.

The fifth and last type of learning given by Dean Parker is skill in expression. This needs no detailed attention here for it in itself is the very thing which we as teachers are trying to do through the special media which we use. All sciences and arts have their tools, to the artist his brush, to the sculptor his chisel, to the chemist his retort, and to the mathematician his

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<sup>1</sup>"Dramatic Club and Public Speaking." *QUARTERLY JOURNAL*, Vol. 2, No. 4. Page 363.

logarithms; but to us the most wonderful of all agents of expression—speech and action.

In summing up we find that man is a “behaving organism” with an instinctive basis for his mental life; that the mind is not a static affair to be filled with knowledge, so that thinking is never an end in itself but is always instrumental in its nature, a servant in the interests of practical life; that we may judge of the nature of an organism only by observing its behavior and the characteristic output of its life; and that in the case of man this output consists of the spiritual achievements of the past, the culture-triumphs of civilization. All these are in the concrete the expression of man’s life in the past, the social heritage of every one born into the world today. These constitute an heritage, however, which becomes actual only through the individual’s appropriating it and making it his own through the use which he makes of it. And last of all we find that the media which we call voice and action are, for man, the chief means of his expression.] The relation of expressional work to the sciences is graphically illustrated in the diagram accompanying Professor Woolbert’s article<sup>1</sup> on this subject in a recent number of our magazine. Viewed in the light of the new psychology, expressional work is no longer to be considered as a wandering planet in the outer rim of academic space, but is rather the central sun of the whole solar system of education.

May I close this discussion with a bit of testimony, Edwin G. Conklin, head of the Department of Biology at Princeton, is a former pupil of Robert Irving Fulton, whose untimely death occurred only this year. In a letter written to Professor Fulton, just before the latter’s death, he says:—

“I can say with entire sincerity that no one subject which I studied in college did as much for me as did your work. In the training of my own children I have been made to realize as never before how much of education depends upon expression, and I have reviewed in memory my development and have found the real beginning of intellectual life in my attempts to interpret and express the great thoughts of others.”

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<sup>1</sup> QUARTERLY JOURNAL, Vol. 2, No. 1. Page 72.

# EDITORIAL

## THE TIME AND PLACE FOR THE ANNUAL CONVENTION

**A**T THE business meeting of the last Annual Convention the question was raised of the proper time and place for our annual gathering. Owing to the fact that but a small portion of our membership was present at that meeting, it is considered wise to report briefly what was said and to ask the members for an expression of opinion. The time and place of the annual convention are matters in which all members should be interested and on which all members should have a right to express their opinions and to have their opinions considered before the final decision is made. It was voted at the convention that the time and place of the 1917 meeting should be left to the decision of the executive committee. President Lardner requests that members of the Association send their opinions and wishes on this subject (and the reasons for them) either to *THE QUARTERLY* or to him personally.

The question came up at the last meeting as to whether it is worth while to continue meeting simultaneously with the National Council of Teachers of English. It was felt by some that there has been so very little interchange between the two organizations at the last two conventions that it is hardly worth while to sacrifice other considerations for this, although there was not the slightest objection to such an arrangement in itself. It was felt that whatever the English Council did, it would be to our advantage to meet next year during the Christmas holidays in Chicago, or in some other city more nearly in the center of the country than is New York. It was said that we should meet during the Christmas holidays because it is absolutely necessary that we have more than two days for our annual convention. Those who were present at the last convention realize that the amount of business to be attended to and the number of questions that come up for discussion, cannot adequately be

handled in two days, even though we keep steadily at it, and tire ourselves out by the incessant grind of the two whole days without a single period of relaxation. So it was said that we should take at least three days during the Christmas holidays, and arrange a program which would leave the evenings free for recreation and informal visiting. It was further suggested that next year's program be arranged so as to provide for a number of section meetings, in which small groups could meet for a half day to consider at length certain problems, and in which every member present could have ample time for discussion and questioning. For example, each small section could take up some problem in debating, or argumentation, or play coaching, or oral composition, or voice training, or speech correction, or various other definite sections of our field. It was felt that a more leisurely convention organized in this way would be much more attractive and helpful to the membership at large.

President Lardner would, therefore, like to have sent either to him or to *THE QUARTERLY before the first of March*, the opinions of as many members of the Association as wish to aid in deciding these matters. Tentative plans for the 1917 convention, especially if radical changes are to be made, should be under way in the early spring, and it may be found desirable to submit to the Association in the April *QUARTERLY* a consensus of expressed opinions and tentative plans of action. In order that this may be done it is necessary that all members who wish to influence final decision in this matter should make their opinions known by the first of March.

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#### THE NEW BUSINESS ARRANGEMENT

**T**HE *QUARTERLY* begins its third volume under very satisfactory conditions. By an arrangement which was approved in detail at the business meeting during the recent annual convention in New York, the business management of the *QUARTERLY* will be for the next three years completely in the hands of the George Banta Publishing Company. This company will attend to all business matters, including manufacturing, promotion, and advertising activities. They undertake the financial responsibility. The National Association will continue to exercise com-

plete control over the contents of the QUARTERLY, through a board of editors elected, as in the past, at the regular meetings of the Association. An equitable arrangement for the division of net profits between the Banta Publishing Company and the National Association has been made.

All this means that the QUARTERLY has been established as a "going concern" on a paying basis. With this secure foundation to build on, the ambition of the National Association (and of each member of it) must now be to *improve* the QUARTERLY. With the struggle of keeping our professional periodical alive victoriously concluded, we must now exert ourselves to make the QUARTERLY the *best possible* periodical for our profession. Some editorial suggestions under this head will be made in another section.

It would not be right to omit from this statement a brief recognition of the great debt that we all owe to Professor Woodward who has been the business manager of the QUARTERLY for the year just past. In the face of great difficulties, and at times of almost maddening indifference and failure to coöperate he has made the QUARTERLY a successful business enterprise. He has done this by an amount of hard work and painstaking attention to details such as men sometimes give to save a private business but such as is rarely given by unsalaried officers to public affairs. Without such work as Professor Woodward expended on the QUARTERLY since November 1915, it would doubtless have died out during the year. The whole profession is under obligation to Professor Woodward for the life and health of the professional organ.

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#### IMPROVING THE QUARTERLY

**I**N ANOTHER editorial we have suggested that with the financial security of THE QUARTERLY assured, we may now devote our attention much more exclusively to the problem of improving THE QUARTERLY.

That this may be done the Board of Editors request more active and widespread coöperation on the part of our readers than we have had in the past. We are not complaining of the literary support we have received, nor are we ashamed of the

appearance that THE QUARTERLY has made; but we are far from satisfied. We feel sure that THE QUARTERLY can be made a very much better magazine than it has been, provided that a larger number of the readers of THE QUARTERLY will do their part. The Board of Editors *alone* can do little to make THE QUARTERLY better.

In the first place, we want more material submitted—more material on hand all the time. We have always had enough copy for THE QUARTERLY, but in some instances barely enough. On some occasions it would have bothered us to have furnished another half dozen pages of copy. We should not be required to run so close to the margin as this. We should have such a supply of material on hand that we could accept articles some time in advance of publication. It is not at all uncommon in other journals like THE QUARTERLY to have accepted articles appear in the second, third, or fourth issue after they are accepted. This will not mean that articles are held over because they are not as good as others that are given immediate publication. There are a number of considerations which could dictate such holding. Concerning many articles there is a timeliness in regard to the periods of the academic year, or to educational events of one kind or another taking place in various parts of the country. There are considerations in regard to grouping of related articles and other considerations which will make it possible to furnish a better QUARTERLY, provided we can have on hand a larger supply of accepted material available at all times for publication.

Another way in which members can assist in making THE QUARTERLY better is to submit to some member of the Board of Editors, some time in advance of completion, their plans for articles on which they are working. During the life of THE QUARTERLY so far we have on numerous occasions returned manuscripts to authors with suggestions for changes which would make the articles more useful to the readers of THE QUARTERLY. Such suggestions have, without exception, been accepted in the cordial spirit of coöperation in which they were offered, and the result has been better material for THE QUARTERLY and better service rendered the profession by the authors of these articles. On the other hand, sometimes articles have been received which were well worth publishing, but which might have been improved

for our purposes if we could have held them over for another three months for a revision. Owing, however, to the demand for copy such articles have in some cases been printed at once. So it is that THE QUARTERLY sometimes falls short of its best because not enough members of the profession have offered material for its pages.

In conclusion, let us make three definite suggestions:

First, plan to work up during the coming year at least one main article on some problem of the field in which you are interested; start on it now; pick out the subject; consult some member of the Board of Editors in regard to proper month for publication, length of article, sources of information available, or other points on which we can be of assistance to you.

In the second place, see to it that all happenings of professional interest known to you, such as conferences, conventions, important departmental changes (not personal, but professional, such as the introduction of major work, the offering of graduate work, the taking over of new groups of courses from other departments), and other news of that sort, be reported in full to THE QUARTERLY.

In the third place, please report articles and items of interest which you discover in other journals. It is our desire to make the "In Other Journals" section of the Forum department a *complete* guide to periodical literature bearing on our field which is published elsewhere than in THE QUARTERLY.

If the readers of THE QUARTERLY will keep in mind for 1917 that they owe their professional journal literary as well as financial support, and will make it a rule to see to it that when they discover a good thing, the readers of THE QUARTERLY shall have the benefit of it, we promise that Volume Three will be a much more interesting and helpful volume than either of its predecessors.

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#### THE NATIONAL SPEECH LEAGUE

**A**N EDITORIAL in the December issue of the *English Journal* announces that the committee on American Speech of the National Council of Teachers of English have undertaken to organize a National Speech League, the members of which for the most part shall be outside of the teaching profession.



This work is being promoted by Professor John M. Clapp of New York City, Secretary of the Committee, and Professor Calvin M. Lewis, of Hamilton College, Chairman of the committee.

Such signs of important and potential activity outside of the circle of professional teachers of speech is most encouraging, and seemingly cannot fail to have far-reaching and beneficial effect. It means that the public at large in the future is going to be aroused and instructed concerning the need for thorough, intelligent, effective work in speech. If the members of our profession make the most of their opportunities, and really prepare themselves for rendering the high service which the immediate future is going to demand of them, the situation in regard to American speech, both in the schools and outside of the schools, is bound to be greatly improved within the next two decades.

We trust that all readers of *THE QUARTERLY* will lend in every possible way their hearty support and assistance to the new National Speech League, to the Committee on American Speech, and to all other sincere organizations who are working for improvement in the public and private speech of the people of this country. Particularly should we support the two-fold function of the Council's Committee on American Speech, which is stated in the editorial as follows: "In the first place, it will seek to coöperate with the Speech League as in the case of other interested organizations. In the second place, it will have its own peculiar mission, namely, that of pointing the way to better training in speech in the schools, particularly at first in the elementary schools. In this connection it can continue to perform a valuable service in urging teachers of English to study phonetics and train their voices and in suggesting the most available and useful opportunities of doing this."

# THE FORUM

## A LABORATORY COURSE IN PUBLIC SPEAKING

**I**T is usually contended that a college should keep out of politics. If we mean by keeping out of politics, keeping the college as such from a partisan campaign for certain men or certain measures, there can be little doubt of the wisdom of the policy. But, traditionally, keeping out of politics has meant an aloofness from the immediately practical issues of party politics which has prevented colleges from exerting the influence for good government, in connection with elections, which is entirely possible for colleges to exert on a non-partisan basis. The very term "academic" has come to mean "impractical," and the title of "professor" applied to a man in political life is intended to imply his necessary inability to grapple with actual conditions. Similarly, the term "highbrow" is often applied in derision to teachers and students who, within academic walls, propound theories in high sounding language, with no apparent sense of responsibility for making connections with the outside world.

Reed College, during the six weeks preceding the recent election, endeavored to promote good citizenship by venturing beyond its campus to every section of the city of Portland to carry to voters timely, accurate, and non-partisan information concerning the measures to be voted on in the election, and thus to encourage voters to do more thinking, more discussing, and more voting.

Six members of the Reed College faculty and seventeen members of the student body conducted Good Citizenship Meetings at sixty different places. The meetings were held in schools, churches, libraries, and club houses. The attendance ranged from nine to three hundred, the total attendance for the sixty meetings having been 4030. At each meeting two or three speakers, usually representing both faculty and students, present-

ed the main arguments in favor of, and the main arguments opposed to, each of the eleven measures proposed by initiative petition or referred to the people by the legislative assembly. The attempt was made to present with absolute fairness the most important reliable information bearing on each question. At each meeting efforts were made to stimulate further investigation and discussion; and it seems probable that indirectly the college reached in this way at least twenty thousand voters, or about one-fifth of the total vote cast in the county at the previous election.

The student speakers were mainly advanced students in the departments of Politics, Economics, Sociology, Argumentation, and Public Speaking. For them these efforts to promote good citizenship were valuable types of field work, comparable to the laboratory work in the sciences, and to the field work for engineering students at Cincinnati, and the case work of students of Social Economics conducted at New York, Chicago, Boston, and elsewhere.

WILLIAM T. FOSTER.

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#### ORGANIZATION IN IOWA

**E**ARLY in November the Public Speaking teachers of Iowa met in connection with the State Association and formed a Public Speaking Association. The basis of membership we decided should be membership in the State Association with dues at a dollar and membership in the National Association with dues at three dollars.

The President of the State Association is Professor John Barnes of the State Teachers' College at Cedar Falls, Iowa. The Secretary and Treasurer is Charles Tye, Superintendent of Public School, at Fonda, Iowa. Ten new members joined the National Association.

#### ATTENDANCE AT THE SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION

##### Colorado—2

Miss Perle Kingsley, University of Denver.

Miss Charlotte Wood, University of Denver.

##### Connecticut—3

George Currie, Connecticut College for Women.

Miss Olive Peterson, New Haven Normal School.  
John W. Wetzel, Yale University.

**Illinois—3**

Ralph B. Dennis, Northwestern University.  
Clarion D. Hardy, Northwestern University.  
James L. Lardner, Northwestern University.

**Indiana—2**

Sherman Conrad, Culver Military Academy.  
Rollo A. Tallcott, Valparaiso University.

**Iowa—1**

Miss Fredrica Shattuck, Iowa State College.

**Maine—1**

William H. Davis, Bowdoin College.

**Massachusetts—7**

Miss Mary Williams, Smith College.  
Miss Julia Beach, School of Expression.  
Miss Isabelle Couch, Mt. Holyoke College.  
Ray L. Short, Harvard University.  
Walter B. Swift, Harvard Graduate School of Medicine.  
C. H. Woolbert, Harvard Psychological Laboratory.  
I. L. Winter, Harvard University.

**Montana—1**

Mrs. Alice McLeod, University of Montana.

**Nebraska—1**

Searl S. Davis, University of Nebraska.

**New Hampshire—2**

Mrs. Mary H. Dowd, Manchester High School.  
Warren C. Shaw, Dartmouth College.

**New Jersey—10**

Homer F. Covington, Princeton University.  
Franklin Cusse, Barrington High School.  
Miss Alice E. Freeman, East Orange High School.  
William Milwitski, Barrington High School.  
Miss May E. Myers, College of St. Elizabeth.  
J. Walter Reeves, Peddie Institute.  
Henry W. Smith, Princeton Theological Seminary.  
Miss Grace M. Warner, East Orange High School.  
Charles D. Wheelock, Glen Ridge High School.  
Miss Elizabeth Wiles, East Orange High School.

**New York—25**

J. Woodman Babbitt, New York State Association Elocutionists.  
Miss Elizabeth Beatty, The Castle School.  
Miss Alma Bullowa, Hunter College High School.  
Dale Carnegie, Y. M. C. A. Schools, New York.  
Jules T. Cotter, Brooklyn M. T. High School.  
A. M. Drummond, Cornell University.  
Miss Rose Graves, Yonkers High School.

Miss Jane Herendeen, Vassar College.  
Arthur T. Jelley, White Plains High School.  
Max Licherman, Bushwick High School, Brooklyn.  
Horace G. McKean, Union College.  
Miss Helen Miller, Parker Collegiate Institute.  
Miss Martha Miserve, Brooklyn M. T. High School.  
Miss Mary Noone, Kingston High School.  
Walter E. Peck, New Rochelle High School.  
Miss Edith M. Phelps, The H. W. Wilson Company.  
D. W. Redmond, College of the City of New York.  
Miss Grace Reed, Hempstead High School.  
Gustav Schultz, College of the City of New York.  
Elmer W. Smith, Colgate University.  
W. Palmer Smith, Stuyversant High School.  
Charles A. Tonsor, New York University.  
Miss Elizabeth Wellwood, Eastern District High School.  
James A. Winans, Cornell University.  
Miss Mary Yost, Vassar College.

**Ohio—3**

Charles M. Newcomb, Ohio Wesleyan University.  
R. A. Swink, Ohio Wesleyan University.  
H. S. Woodward, Western Reserve University.

**Oklahoma—1**

I. Samuels, Oklahoma A. and M. College.

**Pennsylvania—10**

John Dolman, Jr., University of Pennsylvania.  
Miss Cora Everett, West Chester Normal School.  
Miss Catharine Hill, Stroudsburg Normal School.  
Wilbur J. Kay, Washington and Jefferson.  
F. H. Lane, University of Pittsburgh.  
Myron Luke, Lehigh University.  
Stephen Knowlton, The Haverford School.  
Miss Tirzah Nichols, The Baldwin School.  
Herman Shaw, The Haverford School.  
Bromley Smith, Bucknell University.

**Utah—2**

Miss Maud May Babcock, University of Utah.  
Miss Armorer Dixon, Brigham Young University.

**South Dakota—1**

E. L. Hunt, Huron College.

**Wisconsin—3**

Smiley Blanton, University of Wisconsin.  
J. S. Gaylord, University of Wisconsin.  
J. M. O'Neill, University of Wisconsin.

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|---------------------------------|----|
| Total registration .....        | 78 |
| States represented .....        | 18 |
| Also present last year .....    | 20 |
| Secondary Schools .....         | 21 |
| Colleges and Universities ..... | 34 |
| Normal Schools .....            | 3  |

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#### IN OTHER JOURNALS

**STAMMERING AND ITS EXTIRPATION.** By ERNEST TOMPKINS, *Pedagogical Seminary*, June, 1916, pp. 153.

Ernest Tompkins in his article on *Stammering and its Extirpation* gives stuttering as one of the chief causes of stammering. The child acquires the defect of stuttering and is ridiculed into making a conscious effort at speaking normally. It is this effort, the author states, conflicting with the usual automatic speech which causes stammering.

His definitions make a clear distinction between the terms, stuttering and stammering. Stuttering is "habitual repetition" and stammering is "spasmodic abortive speech."

Stammering is a conscious effort at speech. The author believes that the beginnings of this defect come on when the child is recovering from a temporary lack of speech control. Will power returns before power of speech and the child makes an effort again and again to overcome this disturbance and only stammers more. The child speaks automatically as all adults do. None of us knows how to speak with a consciousness of it so when any individual tries to speak with such an effort it is bound to conflict with the normal automatic way.

Many reasons have been given why stammerers can speak with no trouble in solitude. Tompkins explains this by saying that in such a case there is no necessity for speaking aloud and as the stammerer already knows the thought he makes little or no effort and so gives his normal speech full sway. When he becomes excited or is under great emotional stress his mind is anywhere but on himself and his speech and so his normal speech asserts itself. There is no conscious effort made at either time.

With singing or speaking in unison there is the added help that the stammerer could stop altogether and nobody would

know it, or if he should stammer no one could hear it, so he makes no effort and has no trouble. The author also adds that in singing, the gradual start, the accented vowel, and the continuity of sound aid the stammerer.

In fatigued condition, people are always more susceptible to troubles and worry. When tired they naturally tend toward more self-introspection and their defects loom up doubly worse. Then when a need comes for speech, great conscious effort is put forth and stammering increases.

When the responsibility of conveying a thought to a listener is removed the stammerer does not care and so forces no effort at all. This is what happens when a stammerer is asked to repeat what some one has just said.

There are nine men who stammer to every woman stammerer. The defect, according to statistics, has just the same symptoms and is just as severe with women when they have it as with men. Tompkins explains this by saying that boys leave home earlier and come in contact with the world and in this way are exposed to more ridicule. The girl on the other hand is usually more under a home influence and as a result more protected and less liable to laughing ridicule.

There is one great cure and Tompkins calls it "Mother Nature's." People familiar with stammerers know that the hesitation is worse at times and normal at times, or, "Intermittent." If a stammerer could use correct speech for a long time, he would be cured by the prevalence of the correct speech over the stammering. In other words a long period of automatic speech would build up more confidence than occasional stammering could break down.

Exercises in "free speech" is what Tompkins declares is one of the greatest helps. He gives his own instance when a traveling man. He always took occasion to converse with his seat partner and ask easy questions—talk easily with people as frequently as possible. When he ceased traveling and took up office work where he was called on for little talking his trouble rapidly returned.

Many books have been published giving new methods of curing stammering. The only way that stammering can be eradicated is by an educational campaign by every individual in society.

The way it is to be cured, as has been already stated, is by making the automatic speech prevail until the stammerer has perfect confidence in his ability. This nature's cure is very slow when persons in public office, such as policemen, conductors, telephone operators, and clerks, are addressed by a stammerer. He could be helped a great deal if the people addressed would look kindly, not pitying, and in a sincere voice say, "Take time to compose yourself and I'll wait." It is a duty of society to stop stammering for the stammerer's own sake and for the sake of those who must come in contact with him.

The mother has the best chance of preventing this defect. She is present at the first symptoms, and a few words would entirely prevent the defect from increasing. If all teachers, nurses, doctors, lawyers, and store keepers were advised or taught just a few essential things about the treatment of these few people, much help would come. "A word of consolation then, is like radiance from heaven. It will make him talk."

Summing up—Society, according to Tompkins, should not tolerate stammering and in refusing to listen to stammering would exterminate it. "All that is necessary is public knowledge that the stammerer always has the ability to talk and the disposition gladly to give him all the time he needs or to wait until he writes."

E. B.

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#### SECRETARY'S RECORD OF THE SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION

**T**HE CONVENTION was called to order on Friday, December 1, at 10:00 A. M., by President J. A. Winans.

The following program was carried out:

##### FRIDAY FORENOON, DECEMBER 1:

President's Address, J. A. Winans, Cornell University.

"Some Suggestions as to Methods of Research," C. H. Woolbert, Cambridge, Mass.

Open Discussion: Henry W. Smith, Princeton Theological Seminary; Wilbur Jones Kay, Washington and Jefferson College; Smiley Blanton, University of Wisconsin; J. S. Gaylord, University of Wisconsin.



"Academic Public Speaking," E. L. Hunt, Huron College, South Dakota.

Open Discussion: Woolbert, J. M. O'Neill, University of Wisconsin; S. B. Knowlton, Haverford School; Kay; Wm. Hawley Davis, Bowdoin College.

#### FRIDAY AFTERNOON, DECEMBER 1.

No meeting. Members met with the public speaking section of the National Council of Teachers of English (meeting at Hotel Astor on the same days) at 2:00 o'clock.

Topic: Educational Values and Organization of Oral Work.

The Place of Oral English in the English Course—Claudia E. Crumpton, Girls' Technical Institute, Montevallo, Alabama.

The Practical Value of Training in Public Speaking—Dale Carnegie, Young Men's Christian Association, New York City.

The Educational Value of Expressional Training—Charles Newcomb, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio.

#### FRIDAY EVENING, DECEMBER 1.

##### I

A Buffet Supper and Reception. 6:00 o'clock.

##### II

Program. 8:00 o'clock.

"Methods of Correcting Speech Defects." (Illustrated with moving pictures.)

Frederick Martin, Director of Speech Improvement in the Public Schools of New York, and Director of the Speech Clinic in the College of the City of New York.

Discussion and Questions: Mrs. Alice McLeod, University of Montana; Frederick D. Losey, New York City; Kay.

Reports of Committees were called for by President Winans.

The Membership Committee made no report, H. B. Gough (Chairman), being absent.

The Research Committee (Gaylord, Chairman) made its report. Discussion by Kay, Losey.

The Committee on Distribution of Briefs (Hardy, Chairman) made its report. Discussion by O'Neill, Winans, Kay, Conrad. It was voted on motion made by Kay that the Committee be continued.

President Winans announced that the Committee on College Entrance Credits (Winter, chairman) wished to report progress.

President Winans appointed the following committees:

Committee on Nominations: Dennis (chairman), Covington, Miss Babcock, Gaylord.

Auditing Committee: Conrad (chairman), Lane.

SATURDAY MORNING, DECEMBER 2.

"A Question of Method," J. L. Lardner, Northwestern University.

Open Discussion: Winans; Kay; Myron Luke, Lehigh University.

"The Teacher of Public Speaking and the Students' English," A. T. Robinson, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Open Discussion: Robinson; Hunt; J. Walter Reeves, Peddie Institute.

"Theory of Argument from the Standpoint of Sociology." Miss Mary Yost, Vassar College.

Discussion: Sherman Conrad, Culver Military Academy.

Open Discussion: O'Neill; Kay; Gaylord; Dr. D. W. Redmond, the College of the City of New York.

SATURDAY AFTERNOON, DECEMBER 2.

"Interpretation vs. Impersonation."

Discussion: R. A. Tallcott, Valparaiso University.

Open Discussion: Miss Babcock, University of Utah; J. W. Wetzel, Yale University; Mrs. Kingsley, University of Denver; Woolbert; Losey; George Curry, Connecticut College for Women; Miss Bertha F. Wilders, Port Chester (N. Y.) High School.

A report concerning the finances of the *QUARTERLY JOURNAL* was made by O'Neill and Woodward. It was voted that the Editorial Board be authorized to conclude the contract with the Banta Publishing Company. President Winans suggested that the meeting place and time of meeting of next convention be left to the Executive Committee. Discussion by O'Neill; Wetzel; Bromley Smith, Bucknell University. On motion made by Redmond and seconded by Smith, it was voted to accept President Winans' suggestion.

The Auditing Committee (Conrad, chairman) reported its approval of the Treasurer's accounts. It was voted to accept the report of the Auditing Committee.

The Committee on Nominations (Dennis, chairman) reported as follows:

President: J. L. Lardner, Northwestern University.

Vice-presidents:

1. Miss Mary Yost, Vassar College.

2. E. L. Hunt, Huron College.

3. A. M. Harris, Vanderbilt University.

Secretary: Sherman Conrad, Culver Military Academy.

Treasurer: Howard S. Woodward, Western Reserve University.

Editor of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING:  
J. M. O'Neill, University of Wisconsin.

Associate Editors:

Alex M. Drummond, Cornell University.

Miss Maud May Babcock, University of Utah.

Homer F. Covington, Princeton University.

Business Manager: H. L. Woodward, Western Reserve University.

On motion made by Smith, the report of the Committee was accepted.

President Lardner took the chair.

On motion made by Smith, it was voted that the Vice-presidents be advised to consider the organization of sectional conferences.

On motion made by Winans and seconded by Woodward, the Second Annual Convention of the Academic Teachers of Public Speaking adjourned.

PERLE SHALE KINGSLEY, *Secretary*.

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#### STATEMENT OF THE TREASURER AND BUSINESS MANAGER

|   |            |
|---|------------|
| Receipt for the year 1915-1916.....       | \$1,359.88 |
| Disbursements for the year 1915-1916..... | 1,324.15   |
|   | <hr/>      |
| Cash balance .....                        | 35.73      |

**Financial Standing, December 1, 1915**

|                   |          |
|-------------------|----------|
| Liabilities ..... | \$622.49 |
| Assets .....      | 113.80   |

|                     |          |
|---------------------|----------|
| Debit balance ..... | \$508.69 |
|---------------------|----------|

**Financial Standing, December 1, 1916**

|                   |        |
|-------------------|--------|
| Liabilities ..... | 345.63 |
| Assets .....      | 311.66 |

|                     |       |
|---------------------|-------|
| Debit balance ..... | 33.97 |
|---------------------|-------|

There are also carried on the books as a contingent liability to be repaid if, or when, funds may be available, the loans made by members in 1914-15 and 1915-16. These advances were made by 75 members in amounts varying from \$1.00 to \$39.00, and totaled \$479.02.

**MEMBERS**

|                              |     |
|------------------------------|-----|
| Number December 1, 1915..... | 165 |
|------------------------------|-----|

|  |    |
|--|----|
| Number added December 1, 1915, to December 1, 1916.... | 78 |
|--|----|

|                                    |     |
|------------------------------------|-----|
|                                    | 243 |
| Number withdrawn or suspended..... | 30  |

|                               |     |
|-------------------------------|-----|
| Number December 1, 1916 ..... | 213 |
|-------------------------------|-----|

|                  |    |
|------------------|----|
| Gain (29%) ..... | 48 |
|------------------|----|

**SUBSCRIBERS**

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| Approximate number December 1, 1915..... | 100 |
|--|-----|

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| Approximate number December 1, 1916..... | 255 |
|--|-----|

|                   |     |
|-------------------|-----|
| Gain (155%) ..... | 155 |
|-------------------|-----|

**ESTIMATE FOR 1916-1917**

Based on the income and disbursements of 1915-16.

**Income:**

|                       |          |
|-----------------------|----------|
| Membership fees ..... | \$630.00 |
|-----------------------|----------|

|                         |        |
|-------------------------|--------|
| Subscription fees ..... | 510.00 |
|-------------------------|--------|

|                   |        |
|-------------------|--------|
| Advertising ..... | 300.00 |
|-------------------|--------|

1,440.00

**Expenses:**

|  |          |
|--|----------|
| QUARTERLY JOURNAL, printer's bill..... | \$650.00 |
|--|----------|

|  |        |
|--|--------|
| Stenographic work and office expenses..... | 200.00 |
|--|--------|

|   |        |
|---|--------|
| Printing, circularizing, postage, etc. .... | 300.00 |
|---|--------|

|                     |       |
|---------------------|-------|
| Miscellaneous ..... | 50.00 |
|---------------------|-------|

1,200.00

|                   |           |
|-------------------|-----------|
| Net balance ..... | \$ 240.00 |
|-------------------|-----------|

The above estimate, I think, is conservatively figured on the basis of the business of the past year. However, the indicated

profit of approximately \$240.00 would be more than offset by the necessary additional cost. I did not feel that I could undertake the work of Manager another year, certainly not without competent office help that would cost at least \$300.00 more than the \$85.00 spent the past year for assistance; and I believed no one should be asked to do it without such help. Nor would it be possible under a management changing each year to make THE QUARTERLY the financial success there is promise of its being. Consequently I took up with Mr. Banta of the Banta Publishing Co. the question of having the business handled by his house.

At the time of the conversation in New York, Mr. Banta was there and worked out with officers of the Association a contract which was approved by the Association in its business session Saturday afternoon.

Roughly, this contract provides:

1. That THE QUARTERLY shall be the same size and make-up as at present.

2. That the Banta Publishing Co. shall assume the work of promoting THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL, handling the subscription lists, and securing advertising.

3. That the Banta Publishing Co. shall have all receipts from advertising and subscriptions and \$1.75 from each membership fee. If these receipts do not cover the cost of printing and managing, the Banta Publishing Co. shall meet the deficit. If there is a profit, they shall have all profits up to \$300.00. Profits in excess of \$300.00 shall be divided equally between the Association and the Banta Publishing Co.

4. The Association shall do the work of editing and shall have power to exclude advertising.

5. The contract shall run for three years.

This means that the hard work of the past two years and the special financial assistance given by seventy-five of the members have been rewarded by a degree of success which has made possible a very favorable contract. Whether the Association secures any income from the publication or not, the profession is at least assured of a dignified and inspiring journal for a period of three years, without danger of incurring losses. There are promises of substantial growth in the membership and subscription lists that should within this period make the financial

success of THE QUARTERLY comparable to the literary success it has already achieved.

In all our dealings with the Banta Publishing Company they have given us every courtesy and consideration and have been willing to do very close figuring. They have also shown ability and an appreciation of the aims of the Association. They have the inclination, the incentive, and the equipment to carry on a vigorous program of promotion—the thing that is now essential.

It is to the interest of both the Association and the publishers that our members coöperate with the Banta Publishing Co. in every possible way: 1. By securing the subscriptions of individuals and libraries; 2. By suggesting leads for advertising; and 3. Especially by getting teachers to join the Association.

Correspondence regarding subscriptions should be addressed to the Banta Publishing Co. Correspondence with respect to memberships may be sent either to the Banta Publishing Co. or to the Business Manager.

(Signed)      HOWARD S. WOODWARD.

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#### "THE ECONOMIC VALUE OF SPEECH CORRECTION"

THE SEPTEMBER number of the *Medical Record* publishes an article by Dr. Ira S. Wile, member of the New York City board of education on "The Economic Value of Speech Correction."

Dr. Wile emphasizes very wisely the commercial loss involved in allowing speech defects in our schools to go untreated. This is an argument that will tend to open the purse strings of school boards when they remain deaf to all other reasons. The very definite relation between speech defects and the gaining of a livelihood is impressed on those who are 'worked in the dispensaries of large hospitals where come for treatment boys and young men who find it impossible to get jobs because they have defects of speech. Some of their stories are so pitiful and appealing that if the public knew about them they would not begrudge the money for special teachers.

Recognizing that speech defects should be treated as soon as the child enters school Dr. Wile says: "Obviously, the most vital phase of speech improvement lies in the organization of elementary school instruction and methodology, so that bad

speech habits may be checked during the school life of the children."

There is a danger at present that the country will be flooded with teachers for the correction of defects of speech who do not recognize the relation of defects of speech to other neurotic and organic nerve disorders. Speaking of this the article says: "Speech defects cannot be considered isolated phenomena. Speech defects among the deaf and feeble-minded, for instance, constitute only a portion of the potential weakness of the individual and their speech defects, therefore, can be considered simply a part of the general disability lessening the economic worth of the afflicted. All speech defects represent abnormalities."

Only a few of the significant paragraphs can be quoted.

"Speech defectives and particularly stutters are likely to be backward and even retarded in their school work, although there are many who maintain excellent position as measured by ordinary standards of school progress. A large proportion of stuttering, probably 50 per cent, could be prevented by adequate provision for improvement in methods of school instruction. *A large proportion of stutters are curable.* Attempts at speech improvement likewise are of service in detecting early organic disorders of cerebration and may at times lead to prevention of irrational extravagances."

"It is patent that the average sufferer from a speech defect is deprived of his fullest opportunities of education and self-expression. The majority of speech defects are combined with defects of vision, hearing, and muscular coördination, or cerebral development."

"Studies in speech correction may indicate in numerous instances that stuttering has been increased by the attempt to make sinistrals dextrals; and the speech defect thus resulting may actually serve to impair the industrial progress of the child for the sake of securing uniformity in the classroom."

"The economic cost of speech defects is registered in the limitation of the occupations that are available for individuals who have speech delinquencies. The more pronounced the defect, the more limited the field of activity. Another economic gain is to be secured through speech correction in the prevention of industrial accidents."

"The importance of discouragement, anxiety, family distress, embarrassment, diffidence, and shyness upon the development of high moral character cannot be estimated. Wherefore, among delinquents speech defects are noted with greater frequency than normal population. If speech correction can prevent children from moral degeneration, its economic usefulness is enhanced."

"In the ordinary public school system, the educational cost for correcting speech defects has not been estimated. A special teacher is necessary, an ungraded class is important. The monetary expense is negligible in view of the possible gain to society. School systems should recognize that it is a part of their function to develop to the full the latent possibilities of school children. In the education of mental defectives, society can scarcely be repaid for the cost of education because so much of it is now spent on those who will never be able to make adequate economic returns. In the case of speech defectives, particularly in the case of stutters and lispers, the state is reversed. The improvement of speech defectives enhances both their economic and social value. The plea should now be made for more speech, for better speech, and for the prevention of speech defects."

This excellent article of Dr. Wile's comes at an opportune time. It was widely copied in the daily papers, *The New York Times*, *The Boston Post*, and others having printed excerpts from the original article.

S. B.





## NEW BOOKS

*The Literacy Test for Immigrants: A Debate.* University of Chicago, Chapter of Delta Sigma Rho, Chicago, 1916. Paper, pp. 62, \$1.00.

This pamphlet contains the constructive and rebuttal speeches of the representatives of the University of Chicago in the Central Debating League, 1916, being the speeches of the Chicago men against Michigan on the one side and Northwestern on the other. The Instruction gives information concerning the debates and the debaters. A brief preface is written by Harry G. Moulton, Assistant Professor in the Department of Political Economy, Debating Coach of the University. The speeches are printed in regular order, first affirmative and then negative, but they are not speeches which answer each other. We have here the affirmative half of one debate and the negative half of another debate, rather than a complete debate. In both affirmative and rebuttal speeches important material is introduced in brackets with an explanatory note to the effect that the paragraphs in brackets were not actually given in the debates but are inserted to complete the argument. Following the main speeches and rebuttal are two elaborate briefs, one affirmative and one negative, which are rather good briefs. They are better than those usually found in such publications as the one under consideration. The pamphlet also gives a very complete bibliography on the question of a literacy test for immigrants.

On the whole I should say that the pamphlet ought to be of considerable assistance to the student of the literacy test for immigrants, and of very little assistance to the student of debating, though it might serve some helpful purpose even here. Its weakness, of course, as a report of a debate is that it is not a report of a debate. It does not present one debate, and it is an edited manuscript rather than a stenographic report of what was actually said in the course of the debate. In my opinion, from the standpoint of debating, no

report is worth paying much attention to that is not an unedited, uncorrected stenographic report of what was actually said on the platform.

J. M. O'N.

*The Brief-Maker's Notebook.* By WARREN CHOATE SHAW. New York: Ginn & Co., 1916. Cloth, \$1.00.

To the teacher who places the psychology of thinking at least by the side of its logic, and who believes in awakening and holding the attention and interest of the student as well as in encouraging independence and originality of investigation on his part, the *Brief-Maker's Notebook*, with its phases and rules will no doubt raise serious misgivings and appear as a formidable object. One may, indeed, wonder if Mendeleeff's law may not have had some sub-conscious or mystic influence upon the author, for the *Notebook* is devised to accomplish *seven* aims, all questions of public policy are to be studied in *fourteen* phases, and there are also *fourteen* rules for the use of the *Notebook*.

The author has really taken as typical, for the solution of all issues of policy, such things as the finding of evils in an existing system, the showing that a proposed plan will remove these evils, and that the merits of the latter are greater than in a substitute plan. The book, indeed, would be clearer if something of this sort were stated in the introductory explanation; or appeared in a simple grouping of the numerous so-called "Phases."

Practically, it is, of course, unnecessary for a brief-maker to examine every question of policy in these three phases and the eleven others which Professor Shaw develops from them as starting-points. Theoretically, however, by taking the logical motor trip thus mapped out for him, he should gain in accuracy and closeness of reasoning and in thoroughness, as well as in the completeness of his proof. It is, verily, a carefully planned tour, for not only do we pass by the fourteen phases but each phase is further analyzed, e. g., as being a proposition of classification, of causation, or of comparison. I must say that I miss here some of my old friends such as the argument from analogy or example, but I am sure that I will be told that it is included in the others, just as I have a right to say to the author that every argument must imply a cause. Personally, I like to think of any argument as

involving an inference from a complex of the following four relations—simple association, resemblance, particular and general, and cause and effect. This is so, regardless of the name by which I may at the time choose to designate it. I see no objection, however, to the naming of Propositions for the practical purpose in view, as Propositions of Classification, of Causation, and of Comparison. But there is a confusion when a fourth is added (as on page IV) and called a Proposition of Policy, for the first three are asserted on the basis of process, the last on that of subject matter.

Finally, I agree with the author that the type of question chosen in matters of public policy is the best for the purpose, and while the method outlined possesses the advantages and disadvantages of being special, minute, and elaborately technical, it is not too much to say that this book, if properly used, may be made of value in encouraging careful habits of logical investigation and notetaking, preliminary to the making of a brief.

H. F. C.

*The Elements of Public Speaking.* BY HARRY GARFIELD HOUGHTON. New York: Ginn and Co., 1916. Cloth, \$1.50.

Professor Harry Garfield Houghton has recently published a book on *The Elements of Public Speaking*. Those teachers who are giving instruction in this particular field will welcome this book as a distinctive contribution. It will be a welcomed contribution not because of new material facts, nor because of originality of treatment, but for the reason that Professor Houghton has gathered the vital and the leading practical suggestions into a single book. There are, of course, observations that might be made that do not appear in this work (every man has certain, individual ways of doing things that are important to him) but the leading facts are here, and they are put in an understandable form.

The author has treated his subject in a *same* manner. He has gone about his task as one who has a definite body of real work to do that is void of fancy or of useless technicalities. In his preface he says in substance that the student wants and needs two things: He needs a sufficient amount of the theory of the subject, clearly expressed, so that he will not have to work blindly; second, he needs a maximum of practice. There you have it; a minimum of theory and a maximum of practice. It is sufficient here to say that

Professor Houghton followed, in the body of the book, the judicial suggestions of the preface.

The field of Public Speaking has long been in need of a book like this one. For the benefit of those who have not seen the publication itself, it may be suggestive briefly to note the subjects treated. A chapter is devoted to each of the following: planning a speech, the conversational mode, action, gesture, breath control, enunciation, pronunciation, pitch, time, quality, force, emphasis. In reading Professor Houghton's treatment of these subjects the experienced student will want to know something more definite than appears as to matters of detail in ways and means of doing particular things. The beginning student will, however, not be far enough advanced to be interested in nice detail and for the advanced student the book was not written.

It ought to be noted further that the author has an Appendix, two of them in fact. One is devoted to practical suggestions to teachers: these are worth reading and will be helpful. The other is on the general subject of the Declamation. Here the author has made an observation that this writer wants to emphasize. It has been our task to assist in judging a good many high school contests; and we want to go on record as endorsing Professor Houghton's protest against giving the "Call to Arms," "Supposed Speech of John Adams," etc., to immature students. It puts upon them an impossible burden; it is not only harmful, it is positively destructive to their development of proper skill and appropriate taste.

C. D. H.

*Thinking as a Science.* By HENRY HAZLITT. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1916. Cloth, pp. 251. \$1.00.

Some of the chapters in this book, whose title is somewhat misleading, are fairly readable for teachers of public speaking and kindred subjects. The first chapter discusses the neglect of thinking which is so common today and which is to be remedied only by a study of the science of thinking. Science is then defined as the study of "the nature of things as they are," and as a study of the "means of reaching desired ends." The science of thinking is of the latter kind, being the propeller which pushes the ship towards the port of Truth.

What many people call thinking is not real thinking, which must be "thinking with a purpose." In another place real thinking is said to be reasoning. The occasion for thinking is "a thwarted purpose." And yet the author says, "After mature deliberation, the frog solves his problem."

The requirements for good thinking are as follows:

1. We should see "to get our problem or problems clearly in mind, and to state them as definitely as possible";
2. We should then classify according to our purpose;
3. The next requirement is to think by as many methods as possible. When one has chosen a subject, he should first "do a little unaided thinking on it." Next he should select a comprehensive textbook to read. This book should then be read critically, that is, challenging the truth of the statements and examining the evidence offered. The fourth thing to do is to make written notes "of the problems taken up which you do not believe have been adequately treated, or the solutions of which are in any way unsatisfactory. These you should think out for yourself."

Some characteristic remarks are selected to suggest the author's style of thought.

"The discovery of the *fact* of evolution constituted an incalculable advance, but the method for study which it furnished was of even greater importance."

"If a man has not within him the materials of a thinker, no amount of method can make him one."

"Make sure you understand every sentence of a book."

"A good task to set before yourself is to take every idea you agree with in a book and try to treat it as a 'germ.'"

"Few books are worth re-reading."

"He (the reader) will not go very far wrong if he gives thirty minutes to reading and thirty minutes to thinking."

The chapter on debate and conversation is very brief and does not offer much to teachers of debate and other forms of speaking.

J. G.

*Universities Debaters' Annual.* Edited by EDWARD C. MABIE.  
White Plains, N. Y. The H. W. Wilson Company, 1916.  
Cloth, pp. 294. \$1.80.

Practically everything that was said in the review of the first volume of Mabie's *Debaters' Annual* (in *THE QUARTERLY*, Vol. II,

No. 1, p. 101) applies to this second volume. There has been one improvement, wherever the speeches of a single debate are presented they are given in the same order as that used by the speakers in the debate, instead of first all the affirmative speeches and then all those on the negative. In some instances the affirmative of a given college against one opponent is presented with the negative of the same college against a different opponent. This is not satisfactory, of course, for one who wishes to read whole debates. Two of the debates printed are whole debates as taken by stenographers at the debate. These are interesting reading because one feels that he is getting the actual debate rather than a carefully edited manuscript. When some publisher gets out a whole volume in this way, he will do a great service to our profession, and will, in my opinion, profit by the venture. I can see but small excuse for publishing any other kind of report.

J. M. O'N.

*American Merchant Marine.* Edited by E. M. PHELPS. White Plains, New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1916. Cloth, pp. xxviii+218. \$1.00.

This is a volume of selected articles, briefs, bibliographies, etc., on the general question of the American Merchant Marine. It is the most recent issue in the *Debaters' Handbook Series*, and contains material drawn from authentic reports, speeches, magazine articles, and editorials. If the briefs were omitted (they could be easily cut out) it would be an excellent book to put into the hands of students working on this problem.

J. M. O'N.

*Debaters' Manual.* Edited by E. M. PHELPS. White Plains, New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1916. Cloth, pp. x+181. \$1.00.

This second edition of the *Debaters' Manual* needs no extended comment. The original edition was reviewed in THE QUARTERLY for January, 1916, p. 98. The main body of the book remains unchanged, but many new references have been added to the bibliographies, and the list of debating organizations in the United States has been revised and brought down to date. As was said of the

original edition, "this book can be heartily recommended, especially to those who have to work with meager library facilities."

J. M. O'N.

*Lessons in Public Speaking and Oral Reading for Class and Private Drill.* By JOHN R. PELSMA. Austin, Texas, 1916. Published by the author. Cloth, pp. 58. \$0.40.

In a little pamphlet Mr. Pelsma, instructor in Public Speaking in the University of Texas, has gathered in concise fashion a really admirable series of exercises for drill and practice. It is designated to be used if desirable "in connection with any standard text on public speaking, or expression." The author adds also that his aim has not been originality but utility. He has well followed the latter idea: the exercises are wisely chosen, and the ten lessons are coherent and progressive. In the choice of many of his excerpts there is, however, a touch of originality that is quite refreshing. It is one of the best of the condensed pamphlets on public speaking which have been published through the extension departments of several universities, and should prove of assistance to many teachers of public speaking.

G. E. J.

*Community Drama and Pageantry.* By MARY PORTER BEEGLE and JACK RANDALL CRAWFORD. New Haven, Conn. Yale University Press, 1916. Cloth and boards, pp. 370. \$2.50.

This is the best book we know of on the general subjects set forth in the title. None are better qualified to describe the bearings of community drama and pageantry than Miss Beegle, Organizing Chairman of the New York Shakespeare Celebration, and Jack Crawford of Yale and director of the Dartmouth pageants.

The treatment is especially valuable in the emphasis given to the establishment of standards and right conceptions of the work. Yet it is also the most practical manual of rational detail that the writer has seen. Among the most valuable chapters are those on *The Principles of Pageantry and Community Drama, Production, Acting, Grouping, Costume and Setting, and Organization*. In all these the blending of right theories with practical suggestion is admirably done.

The extensive Bibliographies are one of the most important features of the book and cover very completely every phase of the general subject. They alone are quite sufficient justification for the whole text. One should commend both the illustrative and artistic value of the cuts, and the pleasant format of the book as a specimen of printing. The style is so good as to make the reading both easy and delightful.

This book deserves more than this passing comment but we can summarize for it the warmest praise and class it among the indispensables for this kind of work.

A. M. D.







# THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING

VOL. III

APRIL, 1917

No. 2

## ARGUMENT FROM THE POINT-OF-VIEW OF SOCIOLOGY

MARY YOST  
Vassar College

AT the Thanksgiving meeting of the *National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking* in New York, it was evident that the subject of teaching argumentation was of general interest to the members. This interest seemed due not only to the fact that courses in argumentation are given in most of the schools and colleges, but also to the generally expressed belief that nowhere else in the whole field of public speaking are there problems of theory and method more far reaching or ones at present less satisfactorily solved. At the Conference, however, the members were not content merely to express their judgment of the status of argumentation. Many had suggestions to offer for meeting the practical and theoretical difficulties which they had encountered in their own teaching. In current text-books and in articles published in *THE QUARTERLY*, also, we see the interests of the Conference reflected. What kind of constructive work, then, is being done on the subject of argumentation? A general survey of text-books, articles, and the discussions at the Conference indicates that it is taking now one of two general directions.

The most evident of these is the increasing emphasis which is put on the practical rather than the theoretical side of argumentation. Professor Baker's *Preface* to the 1895 edition of his *Principles* gave the first impetus to this development. Here he declared that there was an "argumentation of every day life" (—) which could be understood without the study of formal logic.

From that time on, more and more space in the best text-books has been given to the analysis of effective speeches and controversial editorials, to the advisability of selecting subjects for forensics and debates which will be of real interest to the students, less and less to the study of the commonly accepted definitions and explanations of principles. The student is encouraged to formulate for himself rules for effective practice based on his and others' speaking and writing. There can be no question but that this line of work has been productive of much good, that argumentation is more vital than it was before 1895. It, however, has not solved all of the problems. The empirical conclusions the student is encouraged to draw are, as a rule, too fragmentary and too little related to one another to serve as a very helpful guide in thinking. Some realization of this fact by the authors is undoubtedly one reason why the theoretical side of argument is treated in the text-books even as much as it is. Why, then, do we not have more emphasis put upon it?

[A survey of the text-book gives us an answer to this question. ~~The generally accepted theory of argument as expressed in the text-books—explicitly in the definitions and their explanations, implicitly in the arrangement of the books—is based on a psychology not in harmony with the modern ideas of the way the mind works, and, therefore, the following of its rules leads to artificial writing and speaking.~~ We can see this clearly if we examine how one of the most fundamental of the questions connected with the theory of argument, the way argument effects its end, is handled. ~~Almost all of the text-books state that an argument effects its end by means of conviction and persuasion.~~ With some variation in wording in the different books, the definitions of each term are practically the same; ~~conviction is an appeal to the reason, persuasion, an appeal to the emotions.~~ Let me quote from one of the most recent of them, *The Essentials of Argument* by Mr. Stone of Harvard and Mr. Garrison of Worcester Academy. *Conviction and persuasion*, the text explains, are two ways or methods of approaching the mind. Although it is admitted that the two methods are not found apart ordinarily, yet the emphasis of the explanation falls on the fact that they are distinct and different. "It is difficult," they say, "to imagine two processes more dissimilar than these two

methods of influencing human thought. Conviction rigidly excludes from consideration anything which is emotional in its nature." Now this explanation of the terms *conviction* and *persuasion* was formulated when the belief held sway that the mind was divided into three compartments, the reason, the emotions, the will—roughly the assumptions of the old faculty psychology. Today, however, the leading psychologists have found these assumptions inadequate to explain the phenomena of the mind. A conception of the mind as an organic unit performing a particular function—reasoning, feeling, willing—as may be demanded by the situation the individual is meeting, has taken the place of the more rigid, formal idea. When we realize the psychological basis of the usual definitions of *conviction* and *persuasion*, therefore, it does not seem strange that a student whose attention has been focused on the generally accepted distinction between the terms, should produce in his attempt to appeal now to the reason, now to the emotions, written or oral work which is artificial, and which gives, as Professor Baker complained in the 1905 edition of his *Principles*, a "spotty" effect.

A realization that some of the poor results which the teaching of argumentation shows, may be due to the generally accepted theory of argument upon which the teaching is based has led not only many teachers to neglect the theoretical side but also a few to question the worth of this theory and to advance suggestions for a regulation of it. This is the second line of constructive work which is now being done by those interested in argumentation. At present, however, its beginnings are small. Professor Winans in *Public Speaking* points out the outworn psychology upon which the current ideas concerning *persuasion* are based and from the point of view of functional psychology discusses *persuasion* in terms of *attention*. He does not in his book, however, reconsider explicitly the whole field of argument. Professor Buck in *Argumentative Writing* through the inductive method puts new life into the part logic plays in argument, but here again, only certain aspects of the subject are treated. Perhaps the most significant work on the theory of argument has been done by Professor Sidgwick in two books which are not textbooks in the sense the ones mentioned above are. These are the *Process of Argument* and the *Use of Words in Reasoning*. Here

he aims to clarify and reinterpret the old ideas concerning argument where they are consistent with modern views of logic and psychology, and to discard those which rest on a false or inadequate interpretation of the mental life. Yet here again the field is limited. It is the process of reasoning rather than the process of communication which is dwelt upon.

Although, then, both on the side of theory and on the side of method we find profitable work being done in the subject of argumentation, yet much more needs to be done, before all of the problems connected with argumentation are solved with even relative satisfaction. The challenge is clear, therefore, to those interested in the subject who, perhaps with a taste for adventure, are not able to agree with the stand taken by Mr. Stone and Mr. Garrison in the *Preface* of their text-book referred to above. "We believe" they declare, "that it is extremely improbable that anyone in this twentieth century will discover new principles of dealing with this subject, the teaching of which was an old story before the Christian Era." The very formation of the Research Committee of the National Association of Teachers of Public Speaking is evidence that the challenge is being met. This committee is suggesting profitable lines for investigation to all who are willing and able to carry them out. A survey of the literature of argumentation, moreover, gives a further suggestion for fresh study.

~~All of the usual text-books—the good and the poor alike—approach the subject of argument from the point-of-view of logic.~~ This is not surprising since the principles of argument were first given scientific expression by Aristotle in terms of logic, and the Aristotelian tradition in all rhetorical matters has been little questioned by modern rhetoricians. Yet we may well ask if a study of *Argument* can be made only from the standpoint of logic. Might not an examination of the subject from a standpoint essentially different in some respects from the traditional one serve to enlarge and clarify the current ideas for argument and possibly lead to the finding of principles which could direct more effectively the students' practice than those in use today. An attempt to answer this question led me to undertake some work, the results of which will be presented briefly in this paper. The material examined first was a collection of "business

getting" letters, but the conclusions arrived at from this study have been tested by applying them to specimens of writing other than letters and of speaking, which would be described popularly as *argument*.

The new point-of-view I chose from which to study argument was one suggested by sociology. Argument as we read and hear and use it every day is directly and fundamentally communication between members of a social group, a *society* in the sociological meaning of the term and therefore the study of argument in relation to the social group which gives rise to it as a means of communication between its members offered it seemed to me the possibility of interesting results. The subject treated from this standpoint does not involve a formulation of the logical principles which underlie argument nor yet a statement of the psychology of these principles. It does involve, however, three problems. First, there is the search for characteristics of the typical social group in which argument arises, which will distinguish it, as a species is differentiated from its genus, from social groups in which any act of discourse may arise; second, the search for characteristic effects which *argument* as an act of communication has on both members of the social group, speaker as well as audience; and third, the search for characteristic stages in the process of the act of communication by which these effects are produced. Such a study does not deny the value of the logical analysis of argument; rather its results should be in harmony with the sound logical principles underlying argument. Just as in biology the study of a vertical cross-section of an organism supplements and corrects knowledge gained from an examination of an horizontal cross-section, so the study of argument from a standpoint other than the logical should lead to a fuller, more organic theory of argument than is current now. Particularly it should throw light on some important questions either ignored or unsatisfactorily dealt with in the text-books which have been written from the logical point-of-view. In such a study, moreover, the technical vocabulary usually found when the theory of argument is discussed can be avoided with advantage. These terms, for example, *conviction* and *persuasion*, have so long been associated with an outworn psychology that no amount of redefinition can do away entirely with the old connotations.

If *argument* is an act of communication between the members of a social group, there must be something in the situation of the group which calls forth argument rather than some other act of communication. Now purposive communication takes place in any social group in response to some need of the group. Moreover, it is the member who initiates the act of communication who is aware most vividly of the need and is most desirous of meeting it. It is, therefore, the view of the group situation as the writer or speaker of an argument sees it which we are concerned with here, his conception of the need of the group. I do not mean to say that the audience plays no part in the situation which gives rise to argument. It does, but it is the audience as the speaker imagines it, not the audience as it may be thinking or feeling, which plays its part in the initiation of the argument. Again it is true that the final effectiveness of the argument is conditioned by whether or not the speaker rightly interprets the audience, but that is not the point we are considering here. Here we are enquiring only concerning the genesis of argument.

After examining many specimens of argument I think the ~~writer's or speaker's~~ view of the group needs which he tries to meet by communicating as he does with the audience, is describable somewhat as follows. However temporary his actual connections with his audience may be, the group appears to him as at least potentially permanent or continuous. Through actual contact or through interlacing common interests, this connection with his audience has grown out of the past and is capable of development in the future. He assumes, moreover, that the principle upon which this connection is based is coöperation between himself and his audience, and its purpose the furthering of the interests of the group. This development of the group, however, has to be guided if it is to accomplish its purpose. ~~Something in the immediate situation~~ has checked or thwarted, or he believes will check or thwart, the particular act of coöperation which he deems advisable for the best interests of the group. Now this check is not caused merely by the audience not having its attention on the group, not knowing what the speaker's view of the group's needs and possibilities is, but by the fact that when the attention is attracted, when the audience knows the speaker's ideas for further coöperation, the audience will put and maintain a dif-



ferent, an opposed valuation on the idea from that put by the speaker himself. It is the realization of the speaker that the check to the normal functioning of the group is of the nature described above and his determination to remove it which gives rise to *argument* as the act of communication the group demands.

If then, the genesis of argument is in the social situation described above, what are the characteristics of the social situation in which we find the outcome of argument? *Argument* arises, as we have seen, **when the normal working of the social group has been interrupted, checked in a certain way.** When argument is **successful**, we find the social group again able to develop through the coöperative efforts of audience and speaker in a direction in harmony with the speaker's initial conception of the needs of the group. The situation has undergone a certain change, the **relations between the members of the group, as we found them to be when the argument was started, have shifted.** To effect this change is the function of argument. In order, however, to understand fully what the nature of the change is, we must see what are its effects on both audience and speaker.

Every act of discourse brings to all of its participants some gain in experience, some heightening of the sense of self. When discourse is argument, this gain is of a particular kind to both speaker and audience, this realization of self has certain elements or combinations of elements not resulting from every act of discourse. If we compare **the audience's experience after the argument with what it was before**, we find it has been enlarged by new ideas, by the recall of old ones in a new light and by some modification of the emotional content of the mind. The significant thing about this change, however, is not its expansion; that comes with every act of discourse. It is the revaluation of certain ideas which have been in the attention when the argument was started, and the disappearance of feelings of distrust and antagonism, **when these were present at the beginning of the communication.** Let us take for illustration the farmer who has received a letter asking him to buy a small engine for pumping water. Perhaps the most dominant idea in his mind as he understands what is the subject of the letter, is that he has no money to spend in this way; it is much better he thinks to keep it in the bank. However, finally he buys the engine. When he makes the decision to do so

his added ideas about the uses of the engine, its value to him have reversed the judgment that he has no money to spend on this. To have a certain sum of money in the bank has become of less importance than it was formerly. Also his more or less defined feeling of doubt or suspicion of things sold by mail has disappeared. The change in the speaker's experience, however, is quite different. It is in the line of greater clarity and definiteness, but only slightly of expansion. The speaker, it is true, has gained a few new ideas, all of which are in connection with a fuller realization of his audience; but the most marked feature of the change is that the ideas and emotions with which he started the communication have been clarified and intensified. His belief is stronger than it was at the beginning, and therefore never do we find the revaluation of his experience that we noted as the characteristic effect argument has on the audience. When, in any given case we discover the speaker showing this effect, it will always be found to come from his dropping, for the time, the rôle of communicator and assuming the rôle of audience.

Not only, then, is there a characteristic change in the content of experience for both speaker and audience but there is a change also in the sense-of-self speaker and audience are feeling. On the part of the audience there seems to be a more active awareness-of-self than is found as the result of every act of discourse, but the awareness is less tense at the end of the argument than it was at the beginning. On the other hand, the speaker's sense-of-self is not only greater in degree than the audience's, both at the beginning and at the end of an argument, but also the tenseness and aggressiveness have increased, not decreased. The combination of these effects on speaker and audience produces a social situation where the two can think, feel, and act in harmony with one another. The basis of the harmony, however, is the speaker's not the audience's original view of the group needs and possibilities.

We have described in a very general way what is the social situation which gives rise to argument and what it is when argument has fulfilled its function. Now we next ask what kind of activity there is between the members of the social group which results in such an outcome. The activity seems to be of the nature of a mental conflict between the two with the speaker as

original aggressor and final victor. The conflict may be joined much before the audience is aware of it. Many redoubts may be taken before the audience enters the field but once entered it marshals its forces vigorously. The characteristic feature of this conflict seems to be the forcing of the audience to make a choice between alternatives one of which embodies the speaker's ideas and the other, the opposing ones of the audience. The nature of this choice and the point in the conflict at which it is offered are significant to notice.

An analysis of a large number of arguments has led me to believe that this choice is offered, to borrow a phrase from William James, as a "genuine option." In the *Will to Believe*, James defines the term as follows: "Let us give the name of hypothesis," he says, "to anything that may be proposed to our belief; and just as the electrician speaks of live or dead wires, let us speak of my hypothesis as either *live* or *dead*. A live hypothesis is one which appeals as a real possibility to him to whom it is proposed. . . . Next let us call the decision between two hypotheses an option. Options may be of several kinds. They may be (1) living or dead; (2) forced or avoidable; (3) momentous or trivial; and for our purposes we may call an option a genuine option when it is of the forced, living, and momentous kind." As we indicated above, ~~one alternative of the option is in harmony with the writer's view of the group needs, the other with the audience's.~~ Now the option must be presented in such a way, that the audience will not only choose but choose the alternative the speaker has been seeking to have accepted. How is this accomplished? [The audience's judgment and feeling concerning the object which the speaker is seeking to further, is determined by the set of associations dominating his mind when he becomes aware of this object. . . If the speaker is to overcome this opposition, then, he must put to route these associations and leave their place supplied by others connected in the audience's past experience with thoughts, feelings, and acts in harmony with the ideas he is most interested in at that moment.] To do this he does not endeavor always to focus the attention of the audience on the point of significant difference in their respective views of what the group at that time needs. Indeed, as a rule, he avoids making the audience aware of these points as long as possible, puts off the open conflict between the two. He tries rather to make the

audience aware of the connections between them which make possible the normal functioning of the group and which are related at the same time to the subject he has most in mind. In developing these connections the audience is finally brought to face the ideas which it is the aim of the speaker to get the audience to accept and which he has seen from the beginning would be opposed by the audience. The audience, however, reaches this point with an awareness of something in common between the speaker and itself and also with certain associations aroused which the speaker believes will be favorable to his aim. After this point in the process of communication, wherever it may fall, comes the active participation in the struggle by the audience. Ideas given directly by the speaker or suggested by him may meet with ideas and feelings growing out of past experience of the audience, which are not in harmony with the former set.

The speaker can only win if he is able to translate his ideas in terms of the audience's experience and interests so that the associations aroused by his argument are more vivid and compelling than those which came to the consciousness of the audience first. He has no one way of doing this. Narratives, descriptions, explanations, all forms of word-arrangement are used as he perceives the nature of those points of difference in the two views of the group situation upon which the audience's opposition rests. Where the opposition is quite clearly formulated in the audience's mind, the argument often resembles in its form a dialogue of which only one side is given directly. On the whole, moreover, the conclusions at which the speaker, or writer, wishes the audience to arrive are not presented necessarily, even frequently, as the logical outcome of an explicit line of reasoning. What we may call the formalities of reasoning are very little in evidence. The problem, as we have said, resolves itself into ascertaining how one set of associations can get and hold the attention when a set connected with opposing ideas already has possession of the field. In analyzing the way this is done we cannot separate the part played by the reason of the audience and the part played by its emotions. Both are inextricably bound together. }

It is at the point when the two sets of associations, interwoven, it is true, yet leading to opposed thoughts and actions, are fighting

for attention, and when that one in harmony with the speaker's desire is gaining the upper hand, that the speaker as the last blow as it were, in the conflict presents the "genuine option." The way in which this option is presented varies very much. Sometimes both terms are made explicit to the speaker, sometimes one or both are suggested. The form of the presentation depends on the awareness of the audience to the issue of the conflict.

The result of a favorable decision on the part of the audience may be simply a reversal of judgment or belief, or may be an act which grows out of this new belief. No separate act of will is necessary, for whatever dominates attention tends to express itself in action, and will do so if no inhibiting ideas get into the focus of attention. While, then, the characteristic feature of the argumentative process is the presentation of the option yet the function of argument is not completed until it has held the attention of the audience to its new view of the group situation long enough to fix the new belief or let the new belief express itself in action. Let me use the business letters I examined to illustrate what I mean. When we examine the last part of the letters we find two things which are both noticeable and characteristic. First, there is usually a direct request for some kind of immediate action in harmony with the decision reached in regard to the option, and second, there is an effort to make this action as easy as possible to perform. "Better send your order now and pay for your engine through sales to your neighbors," is the sentence with which the correspondent who was trying to sell the Handy Pump Engine to a farmer concluded his letter. A firm selling a display rack for stores ended its letter to retail merchants as follows: "Don't take the trouble to write us a letter just pencil on the foot of this the name of the manager of the department you would like to begin with and we will explain all about these display racks to him." These two illustrations are typical of the endings of many of the letters whether they are the final letter in the correspondence or not. The function then of that part of the letter which follows the presenting of the option seems to be twofold. First there is the aim to provide a definite outlet for the impulse to action to which the dominant set of associations in the mind of the audience leads; and, second, there is the aim both to provide this outlet before other stimuli,

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either peripherally or centrally aroused, gain the attention, and to make the action such a simple one that the thought of it will arouse little or no feeling of opposition on the part of the audience. Hence, the audience is directed to mail immediately the enclosed card or the stamped envelope, or the order blank, where one has only to check off what one desires. The last part of the letter or speech, then, seems to have a negative, not a positive rôle to play in the actual process of argument. It aims to keep from the focus of attention alien associations until that system of associations which the writer has struggled to have dominate attention can express itself either in affirmation of the idea or in action growing out of that acceptance.

Only a fuller discussion of the subject than the space of this article permits could make clear the sociological assumptions upon which the description of the genesis, function, and process of argument given above rests, or could show how the theory is consistent, as I think it is, with very varied specimens of argument when each is considered as an act of communication. Even from this compressed statement, however, certain points stand out which are quite closely connected with problems of theory and of method in which all teachers of argumentation are interested.

One of the most significant movements in the rhetorical history of the last twenty years has been the reappearance of Plato's idea of discourse and its warm advocacy by the best modern rhetoricians. Until this revival, the sophistic theory had held almost undisputed sway since the days of Aristotle, and to it may be traced much of the artificiality and insincerity of "oratory." The advocate of the Platonic idea today, however, is rather at a loss for a basis other than what may be called the moral one, on which to explain this organic theory of discourse. I believe the assumption concerning the nature of any social group in which communication takes place, which it was necessary to make in order to explain all the phenomena of the social activity of the group which gives rise to argument, gives such a basis. This, as we stated it above, is that the organization of the group when it is functioning normally is based on the principle of co-operation between the members for the mutual furthering of individual and therefore group interests. This conception of the

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fundamental basis upon which all society is formed is one now advanced by many if not all of the leading sociologists.

Not only does the theory of argument when discussed from the point of view of sociology indicate the social basis for the Platonic theory of discourse, but it points also to the importance of the functional aspect of argument, a fact overlooked by the theory of argument when formulated from the point-of-view of logic. Indeed, when argument is considered primarily as an act of communication, the formal aspect not only seems of much less significance than it did under the traditional theory, but it appears much less fixed and rigid than the usual treatment would lead one to believe. If the narrative of the murder of a man is given by the lawyer with the purpose of winning the jury from a belief in the prisoner's innocence to a belief in his guilt, is not this narrative an argument since the speaker designs it to fulfill the function of argument?

Perhaps, however, the most important bearing the discussion of argument in this paper has upon the teaching of argument is in regard to the treatment of the audience. In the text-books, as a rule, the audience is not mentioned until we reach a short chapter near the end with the caption *Persuasion*. ~~If the idea of the importance of the social group in the genesis of argument, however, has any value, then the question of the audience should be taken up at the very beginning of the course. The student must be trained to see that every argument arises from the need of some social situation in which there are two active participants, the speaker and the audience. Therefore, instead of studying the phrasing of propositions first, the student should be set to analyzing his everyday experience, then short newspaper controversies, in order to discover under what conditions argument, as he had understood the term, arises. The active part the audience plays in this situation is impressed upon him and through experience he learns that the more clearly he can enter into the thought and feeling of his audience, the more clearly defined become the real points at issue. The issues should not be looked for in the subject itself, as was stated by President Foster of Reed. It is true that if we are considering a judgment that the writer or speaker makes in the study of a particular subject, the issues are found in the subject itself, but when this writer or~~

speaker, with a definite idea of what he wishes his audience to believe, starts to communicate his ideas with the hope that they will break down the opposition of the audience to his views—a type of communication we have called argument—the issues are determined in another way. Here he finds the particular points of disagreement between himself and his audience, and these points vary as the audience varies.

If a student is taught to approach his subject in this way, however, will he not be encouraged to do superficial work? I think there is nothing in the idea itself which makes this result necessary or even probable. Too much emphasis cannot be laid on the thorough analysis and study of the topic which is the subject of the argument. The point is that such a study should be made as a preparation for the argument, not as a step in its process. The student can be led to see that only through the clarifying and correcting of his ideas by thorough study can he have anything worth communicating to his audience. Shall the student, then, be taught to make briefs? Yes, but he should make them in order to test his own thinking, and not use them as outline guides to his arguments, written or oral. It is the use of the brief for this latter purpose, the brief with its conventional, rigidly deductive form, that makes many a student forensic mechanical and rigid. He is writing what he remembers he has thought before; he is not freshly thinking as he must if he desires to communicate an idea to an audience he has vividly in mind.

The consideration of the audience not only plays an essential part in the student's realizing that argument is *communication* and in determining the issues of the subject for a particular occasion but also it is necessary if the *option* offered by the speaker, or writer, to his audience—that which we pointed out above as the characteristic feature of argument—is to be a genuine one. In proportion as the speaker can put himself in his audience's place, see the situation as the audience sees it, he is successful in making the option he presents to the audience, if the subject at all allows it, "living" and "momentous." Only if he imagine his audience fully can he reckon on presenting a real choice between the audience's valuation of the idea the speaker is advancing, and the speaker's own valuation of it, in such a way that the audience will choose the alternative in harmony with the speaker's desire.



Through his effort to attract the audience's attention, to arouse in the audience's mind new lines of associations with the ideas he is intent upon communicating, to present just the new material which will strengthen the association favorable to his side of the conflict, or will weaken the associations in possession of the audience's attention, his own attention will not be focused on questions of the form of the argument. *Introduction, Body, and Conclusion* will not paralyze his efforts. Also he will see that he is sometimes using narrative to accomplish his purpose, sometimes description, sometimes explanation. The problem of the form of argument becomes, then, subordinate to the problem of function. The question of how to attract the audience's attention and eventually to focus this on the subject, of how to present the idea so that there is no chance of being misunderstood, of the choosing from the evidence found trustworthy just that which will touch the audience's experience most closely, of the translation of the subject in terms of the audience's interests, of making specific suggestions as to how the ideas finally dominating the audience's attention can express themselves in action which will further the interest of the group, all these problems must be faced by the student as problems of a real situation. The question of how much conviction—or appeal to the reason, or how much persuasion—or appeal to the emotion, is never raised—at least in the form in which it is raised in the current text-books.

I have given a very brief outline of some of the implications in practice which the theory of argument formulated from the point-of-view of sociology, rather than that of logic, involves. Theoretically such teaching should give to the student a realization that *argument* is vital because it is seen to be a process of communication, and should make him more sensitive to the ethical aspects of communication through coming to see that the normal action of the social group is coöperation, and that this cannot be furthered when the speaker or writer communicates false ideas either through ignorance or intent to deceive. Furthermore the work involved in a course of argument taught from such a point-of-view should not only increase the student's accuracy of thinking, but quicken his imagination through the training it gives him in understanding his audience.

I know this is a large claim I am making. I know, too, that no method of teaching ever accomplished all one confidently ex-

pected it to do. I shall have to confess, moreover, that although I have tried teaching argumentation in this way for a year and a half, my troubles have not all disappeared. On the whole, however, I get better results than I used to. I get more vigorous and fresh thinking, more interest in class discussions and in the writing and giving of speeches, and I get better, more vivid, expression and technique in general. Much more work needs to be done both on the theory of argument from this new point-of-view and on methods of applying it. It is with a realization of this fact that I ask teachers of argumentation who have found the ideas given here in any way suggestive, to help the study by criticism and by experimenting in their own classes with the conclusions offered in this paper.

## ELEMENTS OF OBJECTIVITY IN WENDELL PHILLIPS

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IT is not strange that the first article to be published on oratorical criticism in *THE QUARTERLY* should deal with the oratory of Wendell Phillips. Neither is it strange that the second article on that subject should treat certain aspects of the oratory of the same man. Of all American orators, Wendell Phillips is likely to have the most persisting interest for students of public speaking.

In presenting this analysis of the elements of objectivity in the oratory of Wendell Phillips, no pretension is made to exhaustive treatment. Only the two volumes of published addresses have been drawn on for materials, although the student has access to many more of Phillips' speeches in the files of the contemporary press. Moreover, only the more striking elements have been considered.

To *QUARTERLY JOURNAL* readers it is hardly necessary to define terms. We are agreed that the aim of a speaker is to influence human minds, to drive truth home to his hearers. We say that he attains his purpose best by *objective*, that is, by fitting his speech materials to the minds of his audience. This is a point of view that may not be neglected without most disastrous consequences, and an appreciation of which measures largely effectiveness in speech. I shall take the subject up primarily from the point of view of illustrations, as objective references take in the main that form, considering their number, sources, subject-matter, aptness, and giving also some attention to quotations, Biblical references, and one or two other elements.

I am not aware that the term "illustration" has ever been very definitely defined in relation to oratory so that one may tell with certainty what is and what is not to be included in it. I am frank to say that after giving the matter rather careful thought, I am in grave doubt as to what forms an illustration may take. I do not, however, expect to discuss that question here. I shall take the term in its broader significance, to include such forms as the analogy, anecdote, parable, fable, simile, and metaphor. If anyone questions the illustrative effect of metaphor,

I refer him to the following one from Fisher Ames: "A monarchy is a man of war, stanch, iron-ribbed, and resistless when under full sail; yet a single rock sends her to the bottom. Our republic is a raft hard to steer, and your feet always wet; but nothing can sink her."

Few will deny that surprisingly much of the salt of oratorical literature is in the form of illustrations. The value of the illustration as an instrument for bringing truth home to the common understanding has been recognized in all ages. The truths of the New Testament derive their vitality no more from their nature than from the striking manner in which they are presented. Edmund Burke is known for the sweep of his imagination, "an imperial fancy that laid all nature under his tribute." Lincoln's effectiveness as a speaker depended in no small measure on his facility in using homely illustrations borrowed from forest, field, and farm. Beecher was not content to deliver his sermons until he saw his message illuminated by a series of visual images. The orations of Ingersoll are crowded picture galleries.

Newell Dwight Hillis in his introduction to Beecher's *Treasury of illustrations*, affirms: "The highest genius is pictorial; the works that abide are pictures. Homer's Iliad is a gallery of pictures; Dante's three-fold epic of the unseen world is another. And so it is with Shakespeare, and all the rest of the sons of fame, to whom not only certain classes of specialists but all men of all time pay glad reverence. Other have been, indeed—a glorious company—whose contributions of invention, statesmanship, learning, or criticism have mightily influenced their own and later times, without surviving in individual form to be reckoned among the world's eternal masterpieces. No doubt we owe more in the aggregate to this host of thinkers and actors than to the few crowned ones. But the question of merit and reward does not concern me here. I would only point out the recognised, universal, and imperishable supremacy of the genius which sees and says pictorially."

To this galaxy of the great in pictorial presentation belongs Wendell Phillips, easily the peer of any, and equalled only by a few. From the storehouse of his well-filled mind he was able to draw forth an apt illustration for every vital thought. Similitudes dropped from his lips like rain from the clouds. Some of

his more carefully prepared orations have about enough structure and logic to hold the illustrations in place. They literally teem with metaphor, simile, analogy, and anecdote. One may count over a hundred of these in several of his addresses. The following table will serve to give one a vivid notion of the affluence of illustration to be found in some of Phillips' better known speeches:

|                                 | Metaphors | Similes | Analogies | Anecdote |
|---------------------------------|-----------|---------|-----------|----------|
| Harper's Ferry Address.....     | 89        | 8       | 33        | 3        |
| Scholar in a Republic.....      | 78        | 5       | 24        | 1        |
| Progress .....                  | 76        | 7       | 27        | 0        |
| Lincoln's Election .....        | 61        | 8       | 29        | 5        |
| Daniel O'Connell .....          | 55        | 5       | 22        | 6        |
| Under the Flag .....            | 47        | 3       | 9         |          |
| Idols .....                     | 39        | 4       | 17        |          |
| The Pulpit .....                | 39        | 3       | 7         |          |
| Disunion .....                  | 64        | 3       | 22        |          |
| Christianity a Battle .....     | 33        | 4       | 4         |          |
| The Puritan Principle & J. B... | 31        | 3       | 17        |          |
| Education of the People .....   | 27        | 1       | 10        | 2        |

When we remember that most of these speeches are only from six to eight thousand words long, we may well be impressed with the wealth of illustrative materials that is to be found in them. In this concrete, imaginative, *objective* presentation of truth, no American orator can be named who equals Wendell Phillips unless it be Robert Ingersoll.

It is to be noted that not all of Phillips' discourses are so profusely illustrated as the ones named. In his argumentative speeches much fewer similitudes appear. The one on Capital Punishment, for example, is a chain of logical reasoning with comparatively few illustrations. He is dealing there with unaccepted propositions that must be proved, and addressing a committee of the legislature instead of a popular audience. Phillips understood that he could not move a small band of hard headed lawyers and business men by the same means as he could direct the impulses of more or less unthinking multitudes. It was when he was on the popular platform addressing multitudes on great moral questions and bent on rousing slumbering consciences that he was most lavish in his comparisons. For its

length, The Harper's Ferry address is more profusely illustrated than any of his other speeches. The speech was delivered late in 1859, at a time when anti-slavery feeling had almost reached high tide, and while John Brown, wounded and imprisoned, was undergoing trial for his life. It is probably true that Phillips was more roused on that occasion than on any other, and it is one of the greatest addresses that he ever made. The sparks fly thickest when the iron is hottest.

In the propriety of his illustrations, Phillips exhibits unsurpassed felicity. His similitudes and imagery are never introduced for mere ornament: they seem as natural and necessary parts of the speech as those that deal with facts and logic. They are not fringes added on the main body of the tapestry; they are a part of the design, worked into the warp and woof. In the variety of their effect on the mind and heart, they ran the whole gamut of feelings and emotions. Does he want to ridicule the superficial notion that agitation is unnecessary to the progress of reform? A simple illustration from the classics will accomplish the matter more expeditiously than lengthy argument. Speaking of the editor of the *Christian Examiner*, who had affirmed that Woman's Rights Conventions and outside agitation were useless, he classifies him as follows: "To be sure, his idea that agitation was needless is like the clown in the old classic play two thousand years ago, who, seeing a man bring down with an arrow an eagle floating in the blue ether above, said, 'You need not have wasted that arrow, the fall would have killed him.' " Does he want to suggest his loathing and disgust for the sentiment that anti-slavery agitation stirs up strife and that the subject would be better not discussed? A simple anecdote will show his attitude toward it. Those persons are "like the viper pedler in Spain, who exhibited his stock to the inn guests all the evening, descanting on their life and vigor, and, when at night in the utter dark one traveller felt something cold crawling on his face, cried out, 'It is only my vipers, they are all loose; but if you'll only lie perfectly still and quiet, they won't hurt you the least!'"

How withering was the effect of some of his illustrations may be seen from the following. A Boston mob made up of young "clerks and fops" tried to break up an anti-slavery meeting in the early months of 1860. Frederic Douglass, the negro orator, and

another colored man tried to rescue the meeting from the mob. Two weeks later, Phillips in describing the meeting and drawing some lessons from it, paid his compliments to the young mobocrats: "It is a singular sight. White men, having enjoyed the best book education, to see them struggling with two colored men, whose only education was oppression and the anti-slavery enterprise! But in that contest of parliamentary skill, the two colored men never made a mistake, while every step of their opponents was folly upon folly. Of course, upon the great question of moral right, there is no comparison. History gives us no closer parallel than the French Convention of Lafayette and Mirabeau assailed by the fish women of the streets."

Considered from the point of view of the effect that the orator wished to produce, these illustrations are all of the first order.

Criticism has been made of Phillips that he did not always see clearly in his mind's eye what his figures implied, and that this resulted at times in mixed and inapt imagery. An instance of this is given from one of his addresses in Music Hall, in which he used the following figure: "The time is coming when liberty will stand by every new-born child and drop in its cradle the schoolhouse and the ballot box." Comment is made on this that if Phillips had seen what the figure implies he saw, he never would have made such a statement. It is doubtless true that the figure makes one feel for the comfort of child.

One may find in Phillips a few mixed metaphors, but strangely few when we remember that many of these comparisons must have been the product of the moment, and that in many instances the speech as taken down in shorthand was never even revised. There is a strange confusion of imagery in the last line or two of this passage from his address on "Lincoln's Election": "But the Bell-Everett party have been the comfort of the canvass, the sweet-oil, the safety-valve, the locomotive buffer, which when collision threatened, broke the blow, and the storm exploded in a laugh." It is not easy to conceive how a storm could arise from a collision or explode in a laugh. The force of the pulpit would be uselessly expended if it tried to "lash the sin plated with gold." Rather unfortunate is the destination of the plummet in the following figure: "Only that Being who fathoms motives, who

lets down the plummet of his infinite knowledge into the complex machinery of the human heart, . . . only He can punish."

Other instances could be given but not many. One would hardly find a score in three times that many addresses. Moreover, in this slight tendency to mix figures, Phillips enjoys illustrious company. Not to speak of the greatest of dramatists, who freely mixes his metaphors, Edmund Burke, in his famed description of Hyder Ali's army, compares it first to a "black cloud," then to a "meteor," and lastly to a "tempest." He speaks of a meteor "blackening" all the horizon, which suggests a somewhat hazy visual imagination.

For the subject-matter of his illustrations Phillips drew on many sources, history, nature, literature, and life. There is a great number of literary references in Phillips' orations, perhaps more in his than in those of any other American orator. Ingersoll rarely goes to literature for his illustrations; Beecher seldom, though more often. The custom of quoting the classics so often and at length, which once was so popular with English orators, was aped by Webster and Everett and Sumner, but not by Phillips and the other lyceum orators. The reason was undoubtedly that classic quotations were found to be poor food for popular audiences.

The literary references in Phillips show a wide range of choice. They are the accumulated spoils of many tongues, Latin, Greek, French, Spanish, English, Italian. Phillips was fond of the French language and literature, and he and his wife were accustomed to "dine in French," as he put it. Fenelon was one of his favorite authors, and DeTocqueville a familiar one, whom he quoted often. An occasional Latin quotation appears, but never without an English translation. Of English and American writers, Milton and Emerson are much quoted.

It is rather strange that a Puritan like Wendell Phillips, who planted himself squarely on the New Testament, should use so few Biblical references as he does. The name of Deity is on his lips constantly, but one may search through many of his addresses without finding a single reference to Holy Writ. And this in spite of the fact that many of his discourses were delivered in Music Hall, where the Reverend Theodore Parker held forth during his ministry. In his address, "Christianity A Battle Not



A Dream," there appear about a half a dozen Biblical quotations, and that is twice as many as appear in any other. "By their fruits ye shall know them" is used in three different places in this discourse. Among the others that appear here and elsewhere are, "Go out and preach the Gospel to every creature," "Bear ye one another's burden," "If meat make my brother to offend, I will eat no flesh while the world standeth," etc., all in harmony with Phillips' idea of agitation and his high idealism.

It has been said that the three things Beecher loved most were nature, men, and God. In his love for one of these only does Beecher go beyond Wendell Phillips. The latter did not "in the love of nature hold communion with her visible forms" as freely and as reverently as did the famous pastor of Plymouth Church. Beecher was a great lover of nature, and in this he was much like Robert Ingersoll. Both had in a high degree an imaginative appreciation of the beautiful in the world of sense, and both drew on this source freely for their comparisons.

While nature imagery in Phillips is not so lavish as in at least two of his most illustrious contemporaries, one does not have to search far to find a great deal of it. Speaking of the growth of free thought in religion on the American continent, and its emancipation from English restraint, he says, "There was no change of law, nothing that could properly be called revolution; only noiseless growth, the seed bursting into flower, infancy becoming manhood. It was life in its omnipotence, rending whatever dead matter confined it. So have I seen the tiny weeds of a luxuriant Italian spring upheave the colossal foundations of the Caesar's palace, and leave it in ruins."

To show the difference in spontaneity and freedom of thought between the early church and the present one, he used this simile: "The early church was not like the Catskill Falls, where, when you crawl up to see them, a man pulls away a board and lets the water down. It was Niagara, poured by God's hand from a million of voices and a million of hearts." The following illustration from Richter he uses to suggest that scholarship should not shrink from contact with the masses: "Very beautiful is the eagle when he floats with outstretched wings aloft in the clear blue; but sublime when he plunges down through the tempest to his eyry on the cliff, where his unfledged young ones die and are starving."

Phillips regarded the ocean as an emblem of democratic government. "If the Alps piled in cold sublimity be the emblem of despotism, let us take the ever restless ocean as ours, only pure because never still."

Phillips' imagination did not often take on the fantastic or fanciful moods which were characteristic of Ingersoll. Still there are times when it takes a wide sweep. The following illustration occurs in an address of welcome to George Thompson, at a reception given to him at Lynn, Massachusetts, November, 1850. "The Carpathian mountains may serve to shelter tyrants; the slope of Germany may bear up a race more familiar with the Greek text than the Greek phalanx; the wave of Russian rule may sweep so far Westward, for aught I know, as to fill with miniature tyrants again the robber castles of the Rhine, but this I do know; God has piled our Rocky Mountains as ramparts for freedom; He has scooped the valley of the Mississippi as the cradle of free states, and poured Niagara as the anthem of free men."

One would have to draw on the "imperial fancy" of Edmund Burke to find a parallel to the following:

"Though I think little of political machinery, I value the success of the Republican party; not so much as an instrument, but as a mile-stone. It shows how far we have got. Let me explain. (Laughter) You know that geologists tell us that away back there, before Moses (Laughter) the earth hung a lurid mass of granite, hot, floating in thick carbonic acid gas for an atmosphere—poison, thick gas. Gradually the granite and choke-damp, as miners call it, united and made limestone; then more choke-damp was absorbed, and sandstone came, more still, and and coal appeared. By this time, the air had parted with all its poison, and was pure enough to breathe. Then came man. Just such has been our progress. Our government hung a lurid, floating mass in the poisonous atmosphere of New York Observers and Heralds, Tract Societies, pro-slavery pulpits, Union meetings, Calhouns, Websters, and Hallets, slave-hunters, Cur-tises. The chemical process began. They were partially absorbed. We had Whig parties, anti-Texas meetings, and Free-soil factions. The change went on, and finally we have a party that dares to say slavery is a sin—in some places! The air begins to be almost pure enough to breathe."

One of Phillips' best known and most eloquent periods is his peroration to "Toussaint L'Ouverture." After comparing the great St. Domingo negro general and statesman with Cromwell, Napoleon, and Washington, much to the discredit of these three worthies, he thus concludes. "You think me a fanatic tonight, for you read history, not with your eyes, but with your prejudices. But fifty years hence, when truth gets a hearing, the Muse of history will put Phocion for the Greek, and Brutus for the Roman, Hampden for England, Fayette for France, choose Washington as the bright consummate flower of our earlier civilization, and John Brown the ripe fruit of our noonday (Thunders of applause), then, dipping her pen in the sunlight, will write in the clear blue above them all, the name of the soldier, the statesman, the martyr, Toussaint L'Ouverture."

For the greater part of his illustrations Phillips drew upon life and history, and history is but life in the past. His interest centered in men and movements. Not that he had any great faith in historical records. He had not. "History," he tells us, "is for the most part an idle amusement, the day dream of pedants and triflers. The details of events, the actors' motives, and their relation to each other, are buried with them. . . . We can only hope to discover the great currents and massive forces which have shaped our lives; all else is trying to solve a problem of whose elements we know nothing. As the poet-historian of the last generation says so plaintively, 'History comes like a beggarly gleaner in the field, after Death, the great lord of the domain has gathered the harvest, and lodged it in his garner, which no man may open!'"

The fact remains that Phillips liked to refer to history. Biography especially interested him. The names of the great men of all nations were constantly on his lips. He was a close student of English orators and statesmen, for his speeches abound in references to them. Burke, Chatham, Bolingbroke, and O'Connell were fruitful sources of examples and comparisons. He knew O'Connell through and through, heard him a score of times while in Europe in 1840-42, and after the great Irishman's death, delivered a eulogy on him that ranks with his best speeches as well as with the world's great eulogies. To show how much his interest centered in men, one need but mention that in The

Scholar in a Republic no fewer than ninety-two historical notables pass in panoramic view, in Daniel O'Connell, eighty-eight, in Lincoln's Election, seventy-eight, and in Toussaint L'Ouverture, fifty-six.

It is easy to see what an element of concreteness is this host of personal references. This is a distinctive feature in Phillips' oratory. Not in any other American orator will one find one-half the number of references to well-known contemporaries and historical personages that one finds in Wendell Phillips. It probably added no small measure of interestingness to his speaking, for which he was so noted, and served at the same time as a strong factor of persuasion and suggestion.

An interesting specimen of objectivity in speaking is furnished by the Scholar in a Republic. In this lecture there are, in addition to the ninety-two references to historical personages, seventy-eight metaphors, five similes, twenty-four analogies, and sixty-four quotations from literature, history, and the contemporary press.

One naturally wonders how marvelously stored was such a mind, how rich the treasure house of Phillips' memory. But it need not have been so. The best stored minds are not necessarily the ones that give out the most. Some minds absorb information like sponges, but they give very little of it out. Phillips' was a mind well stored, no doubt, but the striking thing about it was not so much the richness of the content as the readiness with which he could draw on it. Constant speaking had made it necessary to keep all facts, references, and illustrations within easy reach. It was doubtless this habit that enabled him on all occasions and without seeming effort to make the presentation of truth so concretely effective.

## THE EXPERT JUDGE OF DEBATE

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THE problem of securing competent judges of debate is always with us. Who of us has not suffered, or imagined that he suffered, from the decisions of incompetent, inexpert judges? We have all paid toll to the "prominent man" judge who lacks a definite standard and who bases his vote upon non-essentials, petty prejudices, superior glibness of tongue, or upon the merits of the question rather than upon the merits of the debate. We have all suffered from the judge who, in other respects competent and level-headed, unfortunately does not understand the game of debate, or who does not possess a sense of values; the lawyer who is won by the sharp practice of a team that quibbles over the narrow and strained construction of the wording of the proposition, as lawyers, except in a Court of Equity, quibble over the precise wording of a declaration or other forms of pleading; the preacher whose perspective is so faulty that he sees no arguments in a debate save humanitarian pleas for social justice; at the other extreme, the "hard-headed business man" who discounts entirely the equities in the case, in favor of arguments bearing on practicability and expediency; or the college professor who tends to ignore all the administrative defects of a proposed measure if in theory it fits into a desirable scheme of social evolution.) Who has not suffered, or imagined that he suffered, from decisions by judges who were ("prejudiced through some subtle connection or friendship") with the rival institution? Although there is not so much of this petty suspicion in our ranks as one might be led to believe after listening to debate post-mortems, and although we are rapidly mastering this petty, unsportsmanlike attitude, there is still some foundation of fact beneath the feeling, particularly in high school debates. Whether the complaints are entirely unfounded or not matters little; the fact remains that, because of a vast amount of inexpert and incompetent judging there is much dissatisfaction with our present system. Most of us are willing

to try out at least any new system which promises to improve the quality of judging. Accordingly, may it not be well to discuss the merits and demerits of a comparatively new method, the "Board of Judges" composed of one expert judge?

(The system rests upon the idea that a single expert judge who has reached a high degree of efficiency through much experience as a debater and as a judge, can give a more fair and helpful decision than can a board of from three to five judges, in part, or in whole, incompetent and inexperienced.) To secure the highest type of judge it is customary to pay a fee, and to require in addition to his formal decision, a detailed analysis of the debate with a statement of the basis of his conclusion.) At once the question arises: (who shall be deemed an "expert judge?")

His qualifications should include most, if not all of the following: a thorough knowledge of the ins and outs of debate secured through (1) actual participation in intercollegiate debate, (2) experience as a coach of intercollegiate debate, (3) experience in serving as a judge. It is desirable in addition that he possess by virtue of his training or profession, a fair knowledge and a proper perspective of the fields of economics, sociology, and political science, in which most of our debate questions lie.

The plan is not at all novel; it is in actual operation in a few leagues now. To my own knowledge it has been working successfully for two years in the Centralia-Salem-Mt. Vernon High School League in Illinois. For two years I acted as judge of the debates in this league, and my observations of the plan and my reactions to it while acting as a judge have impressed upon me its merits, to the extent that I should be glad to give the method a trial in the Iowa-Minnesota-Illinois League and the Mid West League, in both of which Illinois participates.

To illustrate more forcibly the merits of the scheme, I shall narrate my reactions while acting as a judge in the recent Centralia-Salem debate. The first, and most important question that arises, "did I qualify as an 'expert judge,' did I come within the specifications of the competent judge?" I shall waive,—or shall I admit it! From the moment one arrives in town, knowing that the debate rests upon his decision alone, he is more than ordinarily conscientious, guarding against his score of likes and dislikes lest he lean too far forward or backward and fall.

Throughout the debate, realizing that he must hand down a detailed decision and that the work of months of preparation depends upon its soundness, and, too that it will be studied carefully for defects, instead of making the usual minimum of written and maximum of mental notes, trusting his memory to recall the progress of the debate, he takes copious notes, and does much careful analysis and a deal of hard thinking. It is downright hard work; one earns his fee. At the close of the debate with an hour at his disposal the judge prepares a careful analysis of the debate.

In the league of which I am writing, in the past no detailed statement was required of the judge, although one will be in the future. I have always insisted that before my decision be read the chairman should read to the audience a preliminary statement setting out the processes by which I came to my conclusion. The purpose and value of this preliminary statement and analysis will be made clear by the following copy of the statement which I submitted in a recent debate in which I served:

Debaters and audiences frequently are at a loss concerning the devious processes by which a judge decides the merits of a debate. Occasionally ~~they are disposed to question~~ the soundness of his decision and to attribute it to lack of definite and sound professional standards. Accordingly, in order to avoid this possibility, and to improve the quality of future debates by a statement of a few of the elements of effective debating which constitute, or ought to constitute in one form or another, the approximate standard of a judge, I request that the following brief analysis of the debate be read:

1. Which team was superior in the clear, coherent, and effective organization of its material?

The ~~negative~~—decidedly.

2. Which team better supported its contentions with sound proof?

No choice; both teams were weak in this respect.

3. Which team established and maintained the most crucial issues?

The negative.

4. Which team was superior in destroying its opponents' crucial issue?

The negative—slightly.

5. Which team, through greater freedom in departing from prepared speeches, and through superior extempore speaking and resourcefulness, more readily adapted its arguments to the arguments actually made by its opponents upon the platform?

✓ The affirmative—slightly.

6. Which team in its constructive argument manifested a superior analysis of the question?

The negative—slightly.

7. Which team manifested a superior analysis of the debate as it actually progressed on the platform, i.e., which team was superior in discovering and following the strategic issues rather than the minor or irrelevant points?

✓ The affirmative—slightly.

8. Which team was superior in team work?

The negative—slightly.

9. Which team was superior in delivery, aside from the effective delivery presumed in other questions?

The negative—decidedly.

10. Which team in general—aside from the rebuttal work presumed in other questions—was superior in rebuttal?

... The affirmative.

11. Which team was superior in debate strategy?

No choice; both were weak.

On the basis of the above analysis, it is my judgment that the most effective debating was done by the *negative* team.

(Signed) L. R. S.

It is obvious, of course, that my statement of the elements of effective debating is merely a rough approximation; it does not aim arbitrarily to set a comprehensive, ideal standard; it is merely suggestive. (It is equally clear that certain of its parts overlap; that they are not mutually exclusive.) Moreover, (I do not contend that all of the eleven elements enumerated should be given equal value.) The standard which I used was one made hastily and expresses roughly what happens to be my personal standard. It served its purpose. The home team which lost, and the home audience that backed it, accepted the adverse decision with better spirit than it would have done otherwise (because it could discern with fair intelligence some just and sound basis for the vote.)



My experience with the plan has brought me to the following conclusions. It may be urged against it that it is too great a responsibility and trust to impose upon one man the decision of a college debate,—however, it is less a responsible trust than the one assumed day after day by Masters in Chancery and Circuit and Federal Court Judges who render decisions affecting life, liberty, and property; that teams speculate on the idiosyncrasies of the frail human being to a greater degree when they trust a single expert judge rather than a board of three judges,—in one sense this is true; in another, it is not true; that it is difficult to agree upon and secure an expert judge. (In favor of the plan it may be urged that it will eliminate the inexpert, incompetent judge; that it will create a small, select group of judges who through much service will reach a high degree of efficiency; that it will save money, despite the payment of a fee, in that it will eliminate the expenses of two judges; that, if the judge be required to hand down a detailed decision, it will serve to improve the quality of debates; that the responsibility placed upon the judge compels more careful work on his part and sounder decisions.) The plan deserves a fair trial, and, at least, a fair discussion.

## A SPECIAL COURSE IN ORAL EXPRESSION FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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ORAL English, as the subject is usually understood by the average teacher of English, seems to be confined to the problems involved in oral composition, to the exclusion of the other important factors making up the broader subject of effective self-expression. As a result of the efforts of the National Council of Teachers of English and similar organizations, English teachers are being urged to undertake the teaching of reading, voice culture, and the technique of speech. If the English teacher must teach reading, let her confine herself to that phase of the subject, and not undertake to teach the special technique of speech and voice training. Such teachers, it seems to me, can do no better than to follow the course presented in Professor Clark's *The Interpretation of the Printed Page*. It is significant that Professor Clark, who has given a lifetime to the study of the several problems of reading, the teaching of reading, and the technique of speech, has, in his latest book on the subject of the teaching of reading, frankly omitted the consideration of voice training and technique of speech, and has definitely stated in his introduction that these are subjects with which the teacher lacking special training can do more harm than good. ✓

The work in oral composition and debating is, of course, an entirely legitimate field for the teacher of English. She does not need to have had special training in voice development and the technique of speech in order to achieve satisfactory results in such work. Such books as Mr. Phillips' *Effective Speaking* and Mr. Winans' *Public Speaking* should be of great value to those engaged in teaching these subjects. It is natural that a teacher of English should find it impracticable to try to train voices and teach the special technique of speech. When she has done her utmost she has still failed to approach the really technical details of the subject, which constitute the special field of the specialist in this work. There should be the heartiest coöperation between a special department of oral expression and the

English department. There need be no conflict of ambitions or efforts—no stepping upon each other's toes. The teacher of oral expression must always teach English intensively, but the teacher of English can usually give only a small part of her time to oral work.

There seems to be a growing willingness on the part of principals to organize smaller classes for the special teacher of oral expression. This is the result of a recognition of the more intensive character of the work, and of the fact that it is not an informational subject, but one requiring a careful analysis of each pupil's physical, mental, and spiritual limitations. If a teacher is to help pupils with defective speech to re-form their habits, individual attention is imperative. What can the English teacher, with the time she has at her disposal, hope to do with such cases? The best she can do, as a rule, is to ignore them, and that, in fact, is what she does, so persistently in some cases that I know of one girl who stammered, who had reached her senior year in high school without having made a single oral recitation. Her teachers had so dreaded the consequences of an effort at recitation that they had not given the girl an opportunity to try. In one semester, assisted by a number of personal talks, a special teacher of oral expression trained this girl to speak so freely that in her subsequent work in all classes she was permitted to recite, and was eager to embrace every opportunity to do so.

I have taught oral expression exclusively for the past seven years, during which time I have had from three hundred to five hundred pupils in my classes each semester. This wealth of material has afforded me a rich field for investigation and experiment, and my present course is the result.

It is easy to criticize—it is not so easy to do it intelligently. It is not always easy to determine the true cause of a mistake. It is still less easy to apply an effective remedy for individual cases. Pupils can criticize each other—they like nothing better; but the wise teacher must lead them to a safe and sane basis on which to found their judgments. This involves a preliminary understanding of possible and probable reasons for existing shortcomings. These, as we all see them, I believe, lie in the fact of the self-consciousness of the pupils. They blush, they

tremble, they stammer, they lisp. They are short of breath, they cannot make themselves heard, they talk through the nose. They do not open their mouths when they talk, they run words together, and their intonation is monotonous and lifeless. When they read aloud they do not fully understand what they read, as is evidenced by the fact that their hearers do not understand it. When they speak they do so timorously, and with no spirit of enthusiasm or of conviction. They stand and walk improperly, and do not know what to do with their hands and feet. They may have ideas, but they are frank to admit that they cannot say what they want to, any more than they can so read as to express what they may feel.

All this—yet in the description no technical terms have been used. Debating, the giving of plays, oral themes, etc., have not been mentioned. I find that to a not inconsiderable degree all the shortcomings of both reader and speaker are overcome by the mere act of freeing the pupil from self-consciousness. It is of the utmost importance that the student be taught right habits of thinking about himself and his motive in reading or speaking, and about his attitude toward his audience. The teacher has need of unlimited tact, sympathy, enthusiasm, and patience, in order to be of service to the pupil in helping him to find himself in the maze of supersensitive reactions of which his life is composed.

Many pupils suffer from a general fear of ridicule, and many have individual physical or temperamental peculiarities about which they entertain morbid ideas. One young girl in my experience had a stiff upper lip, drawn down primly like an old lady's lip. She had become morbidly conscious of her soft, much-filled teeth. The fillings were of enamel and her teeth were not unsightly, but she thought they were, and had taught herself not to expose them. Another pupil had a fretful, petulant voice and manner of speech. She had been the baby girl in a family of teasing brothers, who had done their best to ruin her disposition. Another pupil had lost her mother and had grown morbidly resentful over the coming of a stepmother, whose life she had no doubt saddened by her resistance. This girl was brought to realize the chronic, complaining tone in her voice, which was overcome only by consciously changing her attitude

toward her stepmother. A boy who felt no fear before an assembly of two thousand students went to pieces in the closer relationship of facing a class in a small room. Still another had been taught to shout in grammar school, and at home where he had a deaf grandmother, until he had lost the power to modulate his voice and shouted all the time.

Boys with changing voices that break are always self-conscious. The number of reasons for self-consciousness is limited only by the number of pupils under consideration. Even the school buffoon may be bashful when he tries to be earnest in reading or making a speech before the class.

Only when freed from the paralyzing influence of fear is the pupil ready to think. His reasons for coming before an audience, the legitimate motives for taking the time and attention of the audience, are the next considerations. The average pupil has no notion of the courtesy due to his audience. His teacher demands a recitation. He makes one if he can. Teacher and class are at his mercy, and his mind is divided between his own weak knees and his scattered ideas. He does not know what his audience thinks of his performance unless they tell him. The idea of studying the reactions of one's audience while one talks is new and amusing—one of the most potent ideas, I believe, that I give to my pupils—in any phase of the work. The idea of analyzing one's motives in addressing an audience—the idea, in fact, that one must have a definite motive—opens up the way to discuss the problems of teachers, preachers, salesmen, politicians, lawyers, and parents. For one's attitude toward his audience, if his speech is to be effective, deserves serious consideration, whether the audience be of one, several, or a thousand persons. Until one has learned to forget himself and watch his audience with some degree of inquiring interest and observation, there is little to be gained by discussing qualities of voice, or criticizing the quality of vowels or pronunciation of initial and final consonants.

As to the voice, it is essential that the speaker be heard. One must learn to keep his lungs full, and to talk from a full, resonant chest, rather than to follow the usual habit of lazily trying to talk with no propulsive power in the waist or diaphragm muscles, and with approximately empty lungs and drooping

chest. I make use of Mr. Phillips' laughing exercise—*ha-ha; ho-ho; he-he*. I know of nothing to compare with it for developing the diaphragm and waist muscles, for bringing brilliance and strength into the tones, and for placing the tones. These exercises are described in his book, *Natural Drills in Expression*. The catch-breath exercise given in *Analytical Elocution* by Mr. Murdock, one of the most successful teachers of the last generation of elocutionists, will teach one to keep his lungs full, his chest high, and to take breath at proper pauses with the least expenditure of effort. Yawning, consciously induced, is the best exercise for relaxing stiff jaw muscles and rigid throat muscles and for relieving general nervous tension. For public school work the teacher does not need more information than can easily be acquired from special teachers, *who understand our problem*. While it is not necessary to put a text-book on the technique of speech into the hands of the pupil, it is most desirable that the teacher should know all that she is able to acquire about the technique of speech. If she can train the attention and the ear, and develop a correct use of the speech organs, very little more can be done for her pupils. We are inclined to give too many exercises and to suggest too many things to do. In the resulting confusion the pupil neglects them all. In teaching the correct vowel and consonant sounds I use a modified form of the tables given in Bell's *Principles of Elocution*. I have pupils use their fingers as a measure of the width to which the mouth should be opened. This amuses them at first, but it still serves as a practical guide when the novelty has worn off. It is important that the correct position of the tongue and lips be indicated for the forming of both the consonant and vowel sounds. This subject is adequately treated by Bell, in his work named above, and by Dora Duty Jones in her *Technique of Speech*. It is also presented in a less technical form in the introductory chapter of the last edition of Cumnock's *Choice Readings*.

What our pupils will actually practice is so elementary that it is essential that it be presented in a way to appeal to them as worth while; otherwise they will return to their close-mouthed method of speech. The first thing needed is a teacher whose own enunciation is careful, whose voice is pleasant, and whose ear is sensitive and correct in its detection of mistakes. The

pupil will never speak better than his own ear requires him to speak. Most of our pupils are neither close observers nor attentive listeners.

There is a mistaken idea, very generally current, that the voice carries better when pitched high. I get my best results by letting pupils speak in their accustomed pitch, teaching them how to control the breath and to speak distinctly. I believe a great deal of harm is done by people who do not understand what they are doing when they try to change the pitch of the voice of a boy or girl of high school age. If the voice lacks resonance, exercises in the voicing of the sub-tonics (*b, d, l, m, n, g, ng*) should be used. Few can voice *b, d, g*, ceasing to vocalize the instant the position requisite for forming the sound is relaxed. For the development of resonance I also have my pupils hum, being careful to see that each one places the tone well forward. I also have them practice voicing *b* with the lips tightly closed, and *d* with the tip of the tongue firmly placed at the base of the upper teeth.

As to pitch, if one practices freely the rising and falling inflections of the voice with each of the five vowels in three ascending degrees, it is possible to acquire, in a surprisingly short time, a gratifying degree of flexibility, and the pitch of the voice will take care of itself. What we need is muscles free from tension, quick in response to the subconscious demands made upon them in our varying emotional states while reading and speaking—in short, a responsive personality and all it includes. We cannot hope to produce trained artists in the public schools—that is not our business as public-school teachers.

The amount of technique that a pupil will put to practical use is very little indeed. To give him more than he will use is a waste of time. A very few exercises, faithfully and intelligently practiced, are ample for all practical purposes. Only a limited amount of class drill is effective. Each pupil must be observed and instructed individually. Class drills as a rule are either useless or positively harmful for pupils with immature voices. The time will come, I feel certain, when high-school principals will provide for a more generous amount of time to be devoted to consultation with individuals. Information can be given to groups, but specific exercises, even the simplest, must be given

close individual supervision. The number of teachers equipped to do this work intelligently will grow with the demand, but we all know that at present those so equipped are few.

There are two distinct phases of this work—the tedious, technical, muscle-training phase, which demands that the teacher know anatomy, physiology, and the hygiene of the voice and speech organs—and the esthetic, if you please, the highly intellectual interpretation of literature, which involves careful development of the imagination and emotions as well as of the intellect. Neither phase can be wholly separated from the other. High-school students soon tire of technique. It then becomes one of the teacher's problems to stir in the pupil a mixture of motives varied and powerful enough to carry him through a long, tedious season of self-discipline. The greater part of making over his speech habits must be done by the pupil himself. If he does not follow the advice given to him in all of his everyday oral expression, he can never hope to make an appreciable, permanent change in his habits. Our ordinary speech is largely reflex or automatic. To change one's habits and to do it consistently and permanently is a difficult thing, and it requires such great patience and such constant attention that speech actually becomes a largely voluntary, rather than a completely automatic, process.

The ideal place in which to re-form our speech is not in the high school, but in the kindergarten and in the home. Little children should be taught correctly in the first place, when correct speech habits would be automatic. To my mind little can be gained by putting speech training into the grammar schools. After the age at which habits are formed unconsciously there is no logical place for re-forming them until the high school age. A subtle change takes place spiritually, as well as physically and mentally, in the pupil during his first semester in high school. An effort has been made to obliterate the line of demarkation between grammar school and high school. I do not believe it can ever be accomplished. The grammar-school pupil from twelve to fourteen years of age still regards himself as a child, a dependent. He appeals to parents and teachers for permission, direction, advice, and sympathy. His mother still holds the purse strings, still asks if he has washed his ears, put away his clothes, etc., and there is as yet no humiliation in all of this inti-



mate supervision. But every student of adolescent psychology knows that when the pupil enters high school, simultaneously with the tremendous physical changes which he undergoes, he also experiences a remarkable spiritual growth. One of the evidences of this is the increasing sense of freedom from dictation from both parents and teachers. It is the problem of the parent and of the ninth-grade teacher to provide rational opportunities for wholesome self-expression during this the most exciting period of his life. He lays aside the out-grown habits of mind of the child and assumes a new rôle for which he is, as a rule, conscious of having had no preparation, and he consequently understands himself as little as he is understood by parents and teachers. This is the time when the teacher of self-expression should perform her most valuable service. At no other time in his life does the youth suffer so much from a sense of incapacity, and to help pupils to find themselves is the great work of all teachers of secondary schools, and of teachers of self-expression in particular.

The art of self-expression is so inclusive that one must at once determine which particular phases of it are best suited to the needs of high-school pupils. Self-expression can be taught to classes of mixed grades. First-year students and seniors do not require different treatment, but they do use different material. In my first semester's work each pupil reads one three-minute selection—anything he thinks will interest the class. I see to it that each pupil *does* read at least once; and there is thus revealed to me a good deal of his interest, his temperament, the character of his mental habits, the faults of his speech habits, etc. We then study together for several weeks selections from a reader—dramatic poems, quiet, thoughtful poems, some that call for expressions of tenderness, some for manly courage, and some that are humorous, prose, stories, essays, and some examples of a vigorous, oratorical character. During this season of class work breath control, technique of speech, word grouping, toning, etc., are given as the need for them becomes apparent. My aim during this work is to give the pupil all the information necessary to enable him to prepare for oral delivery, without individual help, a short selection of any of the kinds likely to be exacted of him in any of his other classes. Each one then selects five three-

minute readings of varying character which he prepares for delivery without additional help. In order that I may exercise some control over the sources from which they take material, without in any way restricting their freedom of choice, I require each pupil to give me a written list of the authors and titles of the selections before he begins to prepare them for delivery. Once I approve this list, the pupil proceeds to prepare and deliver, during the ensuing weeks of the quarter, one selection at a time, until the entire five have been both praised and criticized, first by the pupils themselves, then by me. The routine work of the class thus becomes a series of informal literary programs, interspersed with criticism and constructive suggestions. Practically all the pupils enjoy this keenly and develop such a desire to read as to be quite impatient for their turn; most of them forget their self-consciousness in their eagerness to lose none of their limited opportunities to perform. During all these programs I retire to the back of the room and allow the class to feel that it is in charge of the proceedings.

The second semester's work, as I give it, consists of story-telling.<sup>1</sup> Each pupil is given a list of about five hundred short-story books, which I have compiled for this purpose, from which he selects one or more volumes. He must tell eight stories for the semester's credit. Pupils are not permitted to read these stories to the class, nor to commit them to memory. They learn the *story* and then tell it in their own words. To reach the point at which this can be done, they are compelled, without knowing it, to read a great deal in order to find a satisfactory list of five stories that they are willing to tell, and to do an amount of thinking and comparing that would appal them if they knew at the start that it would be required of them. The recitations are for the most part voluntary, thus giving the bolder members of the class a chance to break the ice and encourage the more timid ones to follow, when they see that the water is not very cold after all. Each pupil tells me when he has a story ready to tell, and I call upon him in the order in which his name is listed. Occasionally there is a pupil who cannot induce himself to volunteer, but who can tell his story when he is called upon. Compulsory service

<sup>1</sup>This course was described in the January number of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING, 1917.

then becomes the only remedy. Such pupils usually volunteer after being drafted the first time. I believe that the spiritual courage evidenced by volunteering to tell a story, when the average pupil is sensitive and fears to be thought desirous of wanting to "show off," is of great value to the pupil. A surprisingly large number of boys take this course. During the first weeks, while the pupils are reading widely in search of stories to tell, I give several talks on relevant subjects, such as: (1) characteristics and special significance of different types of stories, such as legends, myths, fairy tales, folklore, realistic stories, etc.; (2) form and motive of the story, as compared with the form and motives of speeches on various topics; (3) fact, fancy, and falsehood in story literature; (4) how to prepare a story for telling.

Before they begin to tell their stories each pupil presents a list of four of his eight stories, with the titles of the books from which they are taken. These four stories are then told as the pupil is ready to tell them. A little later a list of the remaining four stories is presented, the pupil being permitted to replace one or more of them, if he wishes to do so, with a five-minute speech, carefully prepared but not committed to memory. The delivery of such a speech gives him an opportunity to make use of the growing power of expression already gained through the telling of stories, while at the same time it discloses to me the degree of improvement the pupil has attained in the power to think logically and clearly, and to speak effectively and pleasingly. Far too frequently pupils consider that it is unnecessary to make any preparation for a so-called extemporaneous speech. My experience has been that wholly unprepared speeches by high-school pupils are of small value and of no interest. For this reason I use story-telling as a preparation for the course in public speaking, which follows as a third semester's work for those who wish to take it.

This course in public speaking is based upon the practices suggested by Mr. Phillips in his *Effective Speaking*, and in the more recent *Public Speaking* by Professor Winans, which I find rich in practical suggestion. The organization of the work in this course is similar to that in story-telling. Eight three-minute speeches are required for a semester's credit, and a list of books and magazines to choose from as sources of information, is pro-

vided in place of the list of short-story books previously mentioned. While preliminary discussions of the general questions of how to choose a subject and how to collect and organize material are under way, the pupils are making the selection of subjects for their first four speeches. These are recorded in the same manner as are the names of the stories—on cards kept in a file with the pupil's class card, and the speeches are delivered as they are prepared. The sources from which suggestive ideas are obtained are also recorded with the subject of the speech. Before the last of the four speeches has been delivered, the names of the remaining four must be recorded. I believe that some such definite arrangement of the work expected of each pupil, given to him in advance, in order that he may have ample time for thoughtful preparation, is essential if we are to expect young people to replace their natural indifference as to effective results by a more serious and scholarly interest in the outcome of their efforts.

I also offer a course in play reading in the third semester. This is made to constitute a separate course in reading because of the special value of the appeal of the suggested action in developing the imagination. My play reading is a course in *oral interpretation*—not in acting. Acting as an art involves the related arts of pantomime, stage setting and direction, costuming, etc. An intelligent control of the voice—the ability to express the varying feelings indicated in emotional literature—is a difficult thing for anyone to acquire. The sympathetic interpretation of all poetic and dramatic literature, whether in prose or verse form, requires that the reader have this power. In preparing a play for presentation to an audience the characters are selected in accordance with their fitness for the parts, and each part is taken by the same individual throughout the performance. In using a play in the classroom for the purpose of developing in each student a sensitive response to different kinds of characters, it becomes advisable to rotate the parts, so that each student may have a varied experience in his practice. The shy pupil must be given a part some of the time which will stimulate in him the unconscious increase of power. The more talented student must become an inspiration to the less able student, and at the same time be prevented from monopolizing the spotlight. The natural

claims of the audience then are in a sense sacrificed to the practical needs of the actors. The audience, under the teacher's guidance, becomes a body of critics with constructive suggestions, since each member of it was but a short time before attempting to interpret the part himself.

Pupils in the play-reading classes are not required to commit the lines to memory, for the reason that, unless they have first learned to read correctly, their repetition of the words from memory will become mechanical and meaningless. Having learned to read them properly the purpose of the course is fulfilled. Before the play is read in class we discuss the setting of the scenes. A so-called stage director is appointed (usually a volunteer) whose duties are to diagram the stage, and to call the characters, who leave the class and take their places in the reading group. Parts for the entire semester are assigned to each pupil at the beginning of the term, in order that he may have them in course of preparation while they are being interpreted by other members of the class. Such "acting" as is spontaneous, and possible with the book in hand, is valuable, and while I never urge it or even suggest it, there usually develops a considerable degree of freedom of expression during the course of the work. This is the best kind of preparation, I believe, for natural, effective gesture.

The ideal conditions for this work include a small stage, curtains, screens, and a minimum quantity of stage furniture. Reading is a suggestive art, quite distinct from acting, and it is interesting to see the degree of discrimination which pupils develop in such a course. The natural result of the course is a desire to continue the preparation of the play for actual presentation to an audience. As a rule, however, the class work stops with the successful reading of the play.

We have in the Nicholas Senn High School a debating club, a dramatic club, and we are evolving a general literary club. For the work in all of these organizations the oral expression department seeks to prepare pupils so far as the size of the department will permit. Pupils are permitted to take a second and a third semester of any phase of the work that proves to be interesting and helpful to them. Many take oral expression throughout the entire eight semesters of the high-school course. Unfortunately many do not begin it upon entering high school.

It has frequently been suggested that oral expression be made a required subject in all courses in high school. It is now an elective subject. Pupils can never be driven to effective self-expression. They must be led to it. It is the teacher's business to develop phases of this subject that will attract and hold pupils. It should be the purpose of any course in oral expression to make use of the instinctive desires of young people to talk, to tell stories, to act, as a means of developing in them a practical control of their powers of self-expression.

## PUBLIC SPEAKING 1 AT CORNELL UNIVERSITY

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JAMES A. WINANS  
Cornell University

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**I**T is only in response to an urgent request that I presume to set forth in detail the work of our course; but I am willing to do so, if the Editor-in-chief is right in supposing that others will be interested. I should like very much to know what others are doing. It must be recognized, however, that only an imperfect understanding can be given of any teacher's work by a statement of the motions he goes through. Much will depend upon the conditions he works under, and very much upon his controlling ideas, the criticisms and suggestions he gives, and the atmosphere he creates.

It seems best to supplement the bare statement of our conditions and program with some statement of the reasons which control our action; but I do not wish to appear contentious, or to maintain that our ways are the best possible ways. There have been times in the past when we thought our first course had reached something like permanent form; but we have quite abandoned the expectation of ever reaching such a stage. However, with our present light and under our conditions, this is the best course we know how to give.

First, as regards conditions: The course has three meetings a week for the year; and carries three hours of credit a term. The plan of our work is affected by the facts that few of our students take more than this first course, and that less than half elect to take the second term of this. The great majority of those who come to us at all are preparing very definitely for business and professional careers; and they take a little public speaking because they, or their advisers, believe the course will be to them in the narrowest sense of the word, a practical aid. But they do not think that, with the mass of special work thrown upon them, they can afford us much time. Few realize that the course is, in a higher sense, educational. Few yet have any interest in expression as an art; and almost never do students come with a view to becoming teachers in this field, or to becoming primarily speakers or readers. There is no professional

interest. Our students are impatient of the niceties of elocution and rhetoric; and in the limited time they give to our work they would profit little if at all by them. On the other hand, we feel it wise to touch upon certain matters in this first course which we should prefer to leave for a more thorough treatment in a second year, if we could expect many to continue.

The aim of the course is practical public speaking. We put into it, whatever we find best adapted, under the conditions, to training these students for the effective presentation of their own ideas. At the same time we believe we make this purpose serve the broader purposes of education.

It should be noted that a student may, if he wishes, take first a course in oral reading, or a course in voice training. We attempt very little voice work in Course 1. Comparatively few take either voice or reading, while about three hundred and fifty are instructed in course 1 each year.

Course 1 is open to all but freshmen in the College of Arts and Sciences, and to other students in accordance with the rules of their colleges. The rule against freshmen in Arts and Sciences is made by the college, not by the Department; but we are well enough pleased to have it in force, for sophomores, juniors, and seniors in one class make problem enough.

Sophomores in architecture are required to take a term in this course. Formerly they had a special course; but experience indicates that they do best when with other students and given precisely the same work. When by themselves the student speaker faced a group that knew him intimately and grinned at his efforts and laughed delightedly at his failures. As sophomores they seem to know nothing but architecture, but have not reached the point of having ideas of their own on that subject; and what they do know is just what each member of the class knows. Thrown in with other students, if they do talk architecture, they have the task of making themselves clear and convincing to laymen; but they are encouraged, most of the time, to forget that they are embryo architects and remember that they are humans. The Faculty of Architecture has come around to our view.

Recently we have been informed that the Faculty of Civil Engineering has prescribed a half year in our regular course for



their seniors. These also will be distributed through our regular sections. We are naturally pleased by this action of the College of Civil Engineering; but we do not greatly wish to have students driven to us.

No other students are required to take public speaking; but certain groups, as the students of agriculture who are preparing for extension work, are advised to come to us.

I have included in the above estimate of numbers the students who take a special course for engineers, which meets but twice a week for one term. We shall continue this for students in mechanical engineering; but we view the course more as a concession to those who have but little free time than as a course especially adapted to their needs. We encourage them to take the more complete course when they can. After thirteen years of experience with the engineers we have not found it best to give them special work. They frequently choose subjects from engineering; and they are encouraged to do this to a limited, but only to a limited, extent.

Much of our work in Course 1 is done by appointment with individuals, or with small groups. At appointments, topics are considered, outlines worked over, or delivery drilled. This work takes a deal of time and energy; but we feel that we do much for our students that we could not do so well in any other way. Indeed, we know no other way of working; we only know that other teachers tell us they get on without appointment work. On the other hand, each teacher has rather few class hours, six to eight being usual with us. The teacher who, without assistance cares for fifty students is doing all he should; but often he has to do more.

At present we are running large sections. We offer but few hours, and have given up for the most part the bother about assigning students to sections. If a section is too small, we turn students that way; but if fifty, or even seventy-five, show up for a popular instructor, we take them. Then we divide the section, most of the time, into groups of about twenty-five. This, of course, presupposes that we have rooms and instructors available for handling more than one group at the same hour. We save, by this method, the struggle over hours and schedules; and we economize time to some extent, for there are days when all

groups can meet together. We can also have at times a large audience for our speakers; and appearance before the whole class is made a bit of an honor. Another decided advantage lies in the possibility of shifting speakers before a new group meeting at the same hour; for student speakers, like others, are prone to take things easy when too familiar with their audience, and are spurred up by a new group. It is possible, also, to have speeches repeated and improved before another group, with somewhat better conditions than if they were repeated before the same hearers.

I shall now give in a rather definite way a typical program of our work week by week. The Roman numerals refer to week. The text-book references are to Winans' PUBLIC SPEAKING.

### *First Term*

I. First day. Announcements, and statement of the nature of the course, with Introduction of text-book assigned for reading. Call for volunteers for first prepared speeches, to be given in one week. Second day. Impromptu speeches on an easy topic of general interest, for the purpose of breaking the ice. Third day. Chapter on "Conversing with an Audience" discussed by the class.

II. All the week, speeches. For these outlines have been prepared with assistance of the instructor. The pages of the text dealing with simple outlines have been assigned for study, though class discussion of this important subject is held back until it is made more significant by experience. Topics for speeches, with tentative outlines, must have been submitted several days in advance. Attention is paid to the subject-matter, and the class is encouraged to ask questions and to refute assertions—all this with a view to making the student feel that what he says is important and to make him wish to "get it over"; that manner is not everything. But the instructor at this stage is chiefly concerned in securing good mental action and directness of delivery. No criticism on delivery or on the speech as a speech is offered until all the speeches for the day are made; and for the more personal matters students are invited to see the instructor privately. Not until rather late in the course do we encourage students to criticize each other's speeches as speeches.

We wish to make the conditions as normal as possible, with the audience listening to what the speaker has to say and the speaker rising to communicate his ideas.

III. Study and discussion of finding subjects, use of library, making outlines; but perhaps one day is given to a free-for-all discussion of a current topic, which may or may not have been announced in advance. The purpose is to secure a discussion so exciting that members of the class will forget speech-making, and jump up because they wish to express their ideas. We comment very little, except to keep the speakers to the point or to stir them up; and are happy to get very informal talks, close to conversation.

IV. Second prepared speeches, argumentative in character. We do not take the time for special study of argumentation; but assume that everyone knows a little, if only a little, about argument. Incidentally something is learned about argumentation; but the leading purpose is to develop a feeling for speaking by making the speakers feel that they have a very definite opposition to overcome. If they are logical and persuasive, well and good; if they are simply assertive and combative, they still gain something in sensing audiences. Class reactions are encouraged.

V. Class study of the "Principles of Attention," "The Speaker's Attention to his Topic," and "Emotion." Right here there is danger of indigestion; but we need those principles if we are to progress intelligently. We do not adhere to the theory that all that is needed is speaking; there must be speaking and this speaking must be carried on with increasingly clear grasp of principles. The teacher must proceed with care at this point. The principles are first discussed without much application to speaking; then they are applied to the speaker's own mental processes. With care the class can be brought through considerably impressed with the importance of knowing one's speech subject thoroughly, with some knowledge of how to develop interest by proper handling of the material, and to some extent freed from their prejudices against imagination and emotion. The principles will grow clearer as they proceed, as they will come up in many connections.

VI. Expository speeches. No special study of exposition is made; but the class is referred to the chapter on that subject.

If we taught our students all the things they ought to know, about English and several other things, we should have no speeches in the term. But speech-making happens to be our business; so we assume the rest of the Faculty are doing something, and that the secondary school teachers have done something. The leading purpose, as before, is to cause the speakers to develop their sense of an audience; and this time especially by coming to realize the difficulty of making things, seemingly simple, clear to those who do not know about them. With such a problem before them they overcome their self-centeredness, to learn to consider the other fellow's state of mind, and develop directness more rapidly than if told only to make a speech and speak directly. Class questioning is stimulated. Speakers at this stage are prone to consider that the fellow who does not understand is stupid rather than that they themselves are obscure; but if several intelligent members of a class fail to understand, the fact is impressive.

We usually have this third prepared speech written out in full as well as outlined; but we rarely ask speakers either to memorize or to extemporize. We tell them to do as they please, to try all ways. It is a difficult matter to control, and we find it works itself out well enough.

VII. Each member of the class has now presumably been upon the platform four or five times, three times with carefully prepared speeches. In discussions of the text they have also been on their feet. Most can, at least in a mild degree, talk with the audience. They have some knowledge from study and discussion, and some pretty genuine experience of what speaking means and involves. The preparatory school prize winner is realizing that mere declamation does not win admiration, and the scared beginner is finding himself. It is now time and it is now safe to work more definitely for a developed delivery. One day is given to gesture. Gesture has been encouraged from the beginning; but now stress is laid upon it, some exercises are given, the text is discussed through the "First stage of gesture training," but nothing technical is introduced. The chapter on the "Further Study of Delivery" is taken up; and then the "Study of Selections."

VIII. Two weeks are now given to the study and delivery of the selection, "Who is to Blame?" from Curtis' "Public

Duty of Educated Men." First, we have a day on the whole speech, getting at its meaning in a general way, and considering such questions as make trouble on a superficial study. The students are likely to think they know all about the selection after casual study. At the end of the hour their confidence is not so great, and after a week they confess that they are just beginning to understand. Certain of the questions in the "Scheme for the Study of a Selection," are reported on in writing. Usually on the second day a small portion is spoken by various members; but we proceed quite deliberately with the memorizing; and refuse to hear at all from the student who is struggling more with words than with ideas. For several days students speak from the floor, lest they be tempted to "orate." They have to learn that this work is not mere spouting, but a stiff intellectual job.

IX. Same work continues. Members of the class come in groups of three for special work, and a few of the best are permitted to speak the whole selection from the platform—a privilege that is coveted after they feel that they can really speak the speech.

X. The preceding work may run over into this week; or we may have some near-impromptu speeches as an offset to the selection work. Some allowance must be made somewhere in this scheme for the fact that work never runs so smoothly as is here indicated.

XI. Speeches. No special sort demanded, but topics as always must be submitted for approval. This time they must be accompanied by a report on certain questions of the "Speaker's Chart." This may be required at any time; for while these questions will mean more study, most of them can be answered on the basis of common sense.

XII. At this time the final speech is considered. It is to be made with special reference to interesting the audience; and we therefore take up the chapter on the "Attention of the Audience," to certain topics of which a week is given. Let me say here that we try to have the principles of any special phase of the work studied a considerable time before speeches based on those principles are made; in order that they may be assimilated before topics for the speeches are chosen.

XIII. The first three paragraphs of the selection from Huxley, "A Liberal Education," is worked on by the whole class.

XIV. The selection work is likely to take at least one or two days of this week, and perhaps one day may go to gesture, or such other work as seems especially needed.

XV. Final speeches. These are not officially a part of the examination; but the students know that in the nature of things this speech must affect greatly their standing.

XVI. Block week. We give a stiff examination on the text covered, usually including the criticism and reconstruction of a bad outline.

## SECOND TERM

I, II, and III. Given up to class study of the selection from Carlyle, "Await the Issue." It is good to see the students grow during this work. It is a long time since I have heard the complaint that such work is unworthy college students; and if any reader is afflicted with this notion I should enjoy an hour with him while he tried to interpret it. It should be noted that none of these selections call for impersonation; nor are they even, as we conduct the work, what is ordinarily called interpretation. We appropriate them and deliver them as our own, so far as that is possible. The leading purpose is thought training and the development of delivery for public speaking. There is a real difference in the point of view. This work with "Await the Issue" is continued at special hours, by various devices, so long as the students can be kept coming and improving.

IV. Speeches. Special attention to interesting.

V. As we have but few speakers each time, to allow for much class discussion, we probably take more than a week for these speeches. Some more definite work on gesture may come here, "The second stage of gesture training."

V. A selection individually prepared by each student.

VI. Further study in the chapter on "Attention of the Audience"; and study of exposition, with assigned reading in works on composition.

VII. A round of selections in which great freedom is allowed, anything from a "stunt" (provided it have some value as training), through Kipling's poems to Spartacus. Those who

are too somber are urged to do a humorous selection; those lacking dramatic sense are urged to give a thrilling scene. This is in part a safety value; but some good results of a positive sort come out. One is that most of the class never wish to perform again. At this time of year I do not greatly fear that impersonation, or anything you please, will knock out of their heads the conception that they get up for the purpose of influencing their hearers rather than to make an exhibition; but at any rate the following work will serve to fix the right viewpoint.

VIII. Speeches. Old subjects made interesting. Class is asked to select threadbare subjects, such as make one groan to hear them announced.

IX. Text, chapter on "Persuasion—Influencing Conduct" so far as suggestion, which is held too strong milk. We are by no means settled in our own minds how far we should go in the study of the two chapters on persuasion, realizing, on the one hand, that it is best to do a few things well, and, on the other, that these matters of persuasion are of the very essence of public speaking, and that most of our students will take no second course. We compromise by selecting certain topics from these chapters, believing that the worth-while student will become interested and continue to study and think about persuasion.

X. Speeches, expository, with much more attention to the principles of exposition than in the first term.

XI and XII. During these two weeks there will be study of topics from the chapter, "Persuasion and Belief," perhaps a preliminary examination; but some allowance must be made for interruptions.

XIII. Speeches with a view to influencing conduct with reference to something pretty generally agreed upon; persuasion in the narrower sense.

XIV. Odds and ends, such as gesture, pronunciation, or whatever seems best.

XV. Speeches, persuasive argument on a topic concerning which there is decided difference of opinion. This should be the masterpiece of the year.

XVI. Examinations. As a variation, I am now considering an offer to my class that those who will come to me after Easter and show convincing evidence that they have an unusual mastery of some topic and unusually good material, and wish to make a really great effort, may substitute one speech for two and be allowed time for a long speech. Ordinarily our speeches are from five to seven minutes.

It may be noticed that we have no occasional addresses required. We find that the make-believe situation does not encourage the sort of speaking that we seek. We are rather inclining to speeches with special problems involved, as is illustrated above. These are always to be delivered to the actual audience, not to an imaginary audience. The occasional addresses are attractive, but are too often delivered with a semi-smirk, and received with the same sort of grin by the class. There is plenty of real life in our classes, especially in these days. The occasional address may be very good now and then in an advanced course.

Our courses vary from year to year; and very likely this one will be changed after I read the other articles of this series, and the comments made on this. I shall be glad if this description draws out free comment; provided that critics will be so good as to take due account of our conditions and our aims.



## THE FOUNDATION COURSE IN PUBLIC SPEAKING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS

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WILLIAM RICHARD DUFFEY  
University of Texas

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THE scholastic year at the University of Texas is divided into three terms, the first term ending with the holiday vacation. The courses of instruction are either full, two-third, or one-third courses—a full course, carrying recitations three hours a week, and a one-third course running one hour a week for all three terms of the college year. The recitation periods are one hour each. All the courses in public speaking offered are elective, except a one-third course for Engineering students, which consists of a class of about twenty-five each year. The total registration at the main University is now 2,619. There are 430 individual students taking work in one or more courses in public speaking. The total registration of freshman men is 569, and of this number 250 are taking the foundation course in public speaking.

Owing to conditions perhaps somewhat peculiar to this University and to the South, the courses in public speaking are not given to mixed classes. There is no prohibition against women and men registering for the same course, but in actual practice the women students, so far as public speaking is concerned, are instructed in separate classes. We give a full course which is open only to women of sophomore standing. This is primarily a training course for teachers, the content, by terms, being as follows: Oral Reading, Extempore Speaking (Oral Composition), and Argumentation. The fall term's work in this course corresponds to the foundation course later described, except that the practice work consists in oral reading rather than public speaking.

For the purpose of this article, then, the foundation course in public speaking is a one-third course offered to men students, and intended primarily for freshmen. This course is a prerequisite for all other courses in public speaking. It is a foundation course in the elements of delivery, and is intended to lay the basis for

succeeding courses in extempore speaking, oratorical composition, and debating. Although a one-third course, each of the seven sections meet double time, or two hours a week throughout the year. The extra hour is considered as "laboratory" practice, and the plan has the further advantage of guarding against students electing the course for a "snap."

The aim is, as I have indicated, to start the student toward the attainment of greater perfection and power in public speech. In the accomplishment of this purpose, each instructor uses his own method. I will now attempt to show, at least in outline, just how the work is developed in my own classes.

The method used is instruction by means of coördinate steps, using Shurter's *Public Speaking* as the basic text, supplemented by lectures based for the most part on the Curry books. At the outset some time is devoted to inducing a right mental attitude toward the work on the part of the students. We find that the prejudice of teachers, both in the University and in the high school, against the traditional "elocutionary" training dies hard. The average teacher of English, for example, is wont to think that learning to speak means the mastery of grammar and rhetoric, and that all else is worse than useless. Thus students naturally have wrong ideas as to what training in public speaking really involves. Hence, about three lectures are first given to correct these misconceptions. The first lecture treats of four separate misapprehensions, namely: "that an orator is born, not made"; "that training makes a person artificial"; "that giving a man enough practice, he does not need any technique"; and lastly, "that a man should be natural and earnest, but there is no need of training to acquire these qualities." The second lecture is on the meaning of "Expression." This deals with the relation that rhetoric has to delivery, and in a general way, how the mind, body, and voice are coördinated in speaking. The third lecture touches upon the false notions concerning voice training, cautions in the misuse of practicing exercises, and in general gives advice on how to get the best results in working out the problems presented in succeeding study.

The lectures that follow these, until the Christmas holidays, are arranged as follows: the first half hour of the period is given over to lectures on specific subjects; for example, change of pitch,

inflections, emphasis, speaker and audience, etc., the last twenty-five minutes is occupied with putting into practice the technique learned in the preceding half hour. The lectures, in order, given by the writer were: a treatise on natural power, talent, and training, the last part of that hour the students discussed written compositions that had been previously assigned dealing with the natural talents and the training of orators, as for example, Demosthenes, Curran, Clay, etc.; one on stimulating the mind, body, and voice; and the last part of the hour the members of the class were called on to read short selections from the Appendix of Shurter's *Public Speaking*, while the instructor showed them how thinking and the action of their body acted on their voice: as an example, when one student read in a monotonous tone, he was shown that his lazy way of standing, with no chest expansion, and his inability to distinguish between the important ideas and the subordinate ones were the cause of this monotony. He was advised to practice certain exercises for breath control, also given certain selections to learn how to discriminate between ideas. This second lecture aimed to show the class that their success in speaking depended on their thinking as well as on how they used their body and voice.

(It is well to state here that the term "lecture" is used in this article in the sense of analyzing the lesson from the textbook assigned for outside study, with the writer's notes on the same subject.) To continue now with the steps we were discussing; the value of sense training and observation, conceptions and apperceptions were next treated, while in the practice period, the members of the class were called on to read short selections found in the back of the textbook. The instructor aimed in this period to explain to the students that delivery was not something nailed on the outside, and that true expression meant dealing with the most subtle faculties of the mind coupled and interwoven with emotional and physical action.

To illustrate. Two problems were used. The class was given this sentence: "A ship passed the ocean bar." Different students were called on to give their conception of the word "ship," which resulted, indeed, in a variety of answers. The instructor drew a lesson from this, showing that interpretation is a personal matter, and the reason of one man picturing the word "ship" as a small fishing trawl, and another as a steamer, and another as a sailing

schooner, was the difference of imagination and conception. The next problem was taking the word "ship" to mean a large steamer. Members of the class were now told to picture this concept. Again a variety of answers came. The lesson that was drawn from this was the difference in apperception and the result shown what would happen on the supposition that the class held these different apperceptions, in the matter of expression. The sentence: "The steamer was sinking," was now taken as an example. The students that pictured merely the externals of the steamer; the masts, smokestacks, upperdecks, etc., could not arouse the same emotions as the student who pictured women and children aboard, rafts and life-boats, and the amusements of the decks. The explanation given of this was that our thinking and our imagination influence our speaking.

The use of examples such as these were continued in every practice hour, no matter whether the subject was inflection, change of pitch, emphasis, etc., the difference of course being that the problems were applicable to the subject matter treated. Another example might make this more clear. When the subject of "emphasis" was taken up, a problem was given to make this phase clear, that when the mind grasps the big central idea, subordinating the lesser ones, and that when the student has breath control enough to respond to the thinking of that big idea, emphasis follows. Thus it will be seen that the aim of all practice periods was to awaken in the student a consciousness of his own faults, and the great importance of the mind and the body.

The following subjects were treated in about five lectures: Imagination, Memory, Will, Spontaneity, Abandon, Response of the body, Emotions and Passions, Dramatic Instinct, Assimilation, Personation, and Participation. The practice hours were still used in the study of problems dealing with these subjects. Six lectures were given upon the subject of voice and breathing. Specific exercises in breathing following the methods used by Dr. Curry, and augmented by exercises found in Shurter's *Public Speaking*, Mills's and Winter's books, were employed. These lectures included a treatment of freedom of tone, unwritten elements and voice, training the ear, agility, range, tone color, vibration, tones and words, support and strength, and flexibility.

At about this period, pupils were brought to the platform, where short memorized paragraphs were employed and the question of "poise" was treated. The writer emphasized the fact that poise was not merely a position, but was "just that place when the body was responding to the thinking." To make this concrete, an example might be used. A peroration of one of Grady's speeches was given to a pupil. When, in the middle of this peroration, the instructor noticed that the emotions of the speaker were aroused, he suddenly stopped the pupil, showing the class that when a man is enkindled with his subject, his body cannot remain lazily slumped nor inactive.

Exercises in harmonic gymnastics were now given, the awkward and slovenly especially were given attention. The practice hours of at least three lectures were given over to the work of acquainting the pupils with the platform, each pupil perhaps reciting five or six memorized lines. The next three lectures were upon conversation. First, it was shown that a natural, clear, ordinary conversation (unless the person is perverted by habit) contains the same elements that must be studied in public speaking. It was shown that in conversation when the mind is held to an idea, there is a pause in which the breath naturally comes as well as the new thought, and this same condition was traced in accentuated conversation. So, too, the elements contained in conversation were taken up in this order: inflection, change of pitch, range, pause, silence, and emphasis. Attention of the mind, discrimination and subordination of ideas, phrase accent, and movement: the study of these four elements gives rythm; change of pitch and inflection gives melody; tone color and movement give harmony; and lastly volume, intensity, earnestness, and animation give force. In the practice hours, these coördinations were shown by the employment of selections from the best literature and from American oratory. The student was given outside matter on three speeches, Grady's "New South," Ingersoll's "Happiness and Liberty," and Everett's "The Pilgrims." Inflections were marked as well as emphasis and climax. The lectures that followed were upon "the speaker and the audience." They embraced the nature and basis of public speaking, platform etiquette, personality, poise, getting attention, adapting the voice, pronunciation, articulation, and enunciation, cautions on the rate

of speaking, cautions on gestures and pantomime, the covering of technique, stage-fright, and general suggestions on how a speaker should adapt himself to different halls and platforms. The final lectures were upon the different types of audiences, and the psychology and atmosphere of different occasions.

The last week before examinations was spent in a general review of important points. At this time the students handed in reports on specific subjects which had been assigned at different periods during the term. The list of references included the best treatises on public speaking, such as Winter, Mills, Curry, Henderson, etc. For example, one pupil handed in an article on Interpretation based on Henderson's "The Art of the Singer," adapting the ideas to Public Speaking.

The examination for the fall term comprised questions on the text-book and lectures. This examination was of three hours duration, and the rule in this University is that the student must pass both the examination and the daily work. About twenty-five failed to pass the final examination this term.

After the Christmas holidays, the instructor had the pupils choose selections for declamations. Four speeches were the required number. A word about the character of declamations used; the textbook, *American Oratory of Today*, by Shurter, is a collection of up to the minute, live speeches, adapted to five minute declamations, and are selections of real literary merit. All dramatic reading, or that type of elocution which is merely for the purpose of entertainment, is avoided. Someone might question here the wisdom of avoiding dramatic readings. To them we will say that, in the first place, there is a distinct difference between the interpretation of a dramatic recitation and a declamation adapted from an oration. In recitation work, the pupil merely senses the audience, and loses his own personality in personating the character in the recitation. It is the aim in using declamations to convince and persuade the immediate audience on a subject of present day importance, as for example, Senator Bailey's "Texas Undivided." When the student takes this declamation, he is not assuming the character of Bailey, nor acting as Bailey might; he is merely using the ideas of that speech, and adapts the delivery of these ideas to his own feeling upon the question. In the second place, the pantomime of dramatic read-

ing, the outward show of emotion, are decidedly different from the pantomime that ought to be employed in declamation.

About eight speeches are heard in a period. When the students are ready to speak, they address the instructor as they would a chairman, and they are given the privilege of the floor. No attempt is made to force men to the platform. Each man realizes that he must finish before March 13 his four speeches to gain a passing mark. There is no difficulty in keeping the platform occupied every minute of the period. The instructor gives instructions and suggestions at the end of every speech. For example, if he notices a student with poor phrasing, he calls attention to this fact, and advises a restudy of the step that treated on phrasing in the fall term. In fact, all his criticism goes back to those steps treated in this first term. Very often, new exercises are given to correct certain faults, these are taken from numerous books on public speaking and voice exercises acquired by the writer. For example, on the question of articulation, good results have been obtained by the use of the "Phonetic Triangle" employed by Weatherspoon of New York.

The students not speaking take notes on each speaker, and try to arrive at the same criticisms that they believe the instructor will give. The last five minutes of each class is given up to the answering of any questions asked, and the disposing of any particular problems confronting the students. The above is a treatment of all the work of the winter term. The examination is given on the lectures of the fall semester and questions are asked mostly on the application of the principles learned. A typical question being: What criticisms have you been working out? What are your main faults, and how are you correcting them?

This examination is not as long as the fall term. Nor does it count for as much. The students receive their marks for the most part on the work in the classroom.

The instruction during the spring term is divided into two periods. About five weeks are occupied by the student in speaking on selections taken from either *American Oratory of Today*, or *Winning Declamations and How to Speak Them*. A change is now made in the use of declamation. It will be remembered that in the preceding term, the student memorized word for word. Now the student is required to rewrite and memorize his own

wording of two orations, the aim being, in this part of the term, not to use the orator's words, but the orator's thoughts, clothed in the pupil's own words. This serves to train him for the next period, which is devoted to extempore speech, and which lasts to the end of the school year.

The method of conducting classes in this period is the same as was noted in the winter term. Advice and suggestions are offered at the end of each speech. Criticisms are now given especially on the relation of the speaker and his audience, more specific voice exercises, and, in fact, advanced criticisms on all phases of delivery. It is in this term that the class has the opportunity of criticizing each speaker. As previously stated, the pupils take notes on every speaker. In the other terms criticisms by the class were merely enumerations of good points and faults, but in this term the pupils ask reasons of one another concerning different actions, as for example; one pupil might ask another the reason for emphasizing a certain word in a sentence, or another might question the climax. This general discussion proves interesting and seems to be a source of great help to every speaker.

Two essays are given sometime in this term on the delivery and the orations of some present day orators. If the pupil shows any tendency to slight the rewriting of these speeches, a quiz is given. This examination is based upon some two speeches in the textbook, the students rewriting these in their own words. This always keeps the students prepared with material for speaking.

For the last five weeks the students take speeches of local interest, such as speeches by the members of the state legislature, or again on questions still of local interest, but which have been treated by famous American orators; for example, Morris Sheppard's "'Stand Pat' Socialism and Democracy," or the subject of Peace by William Jennings Bryan, or subjects dealing with the University, treated by some of the alumni. They outline these orations and with these outlines as guides they speak for five to eight minutes. Thus it will be seen there is a difference between the first five weeks and the last five weeks of this term. In the first half the student is memorizing his own wording of another's thought, and in the second half he is employing another's outline using his own thoughts and words. About fifty speeches are heard this part of the term, and, as there is no final



examination, the student must pass what might be termed a "test speech." He must also pass in four completed outlines.

This class of extempore speech must not be confounded with an entirely separate and distinct course offered here in this University. These five weeks we are now treating of are merely part of the foundation course.

It will be seen that the aim in this foundation course is always to make the student learn, one step at a time, before Christmas, and show the knowledge of all the steps when he is speaking his declamations during the last half of the year.

There are many difficulties to be overcome in this foundation course, but results so far have been gratifying. If students are started aright, the instructor may have the satisfaction of knowing that he is doing his part toward bringing his profession into its proper sphere in university instruction.

## THE BEGINNING COURSE IN ORATORY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

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R. D. T. HOLLISTER  
University of Michigan

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THE beginning course in Oratory at the University of Michigan may be considered briefly under the following heads: (1) organization, (2) aims, (3) methods, (4) results.

ORGANIZATION. The course is offered each semester and in the Summer Session. The class meets an hour three times a week for half a year except during the Summer Session when the work is condensed into four hours per week for eight weeks. An effort is made to limit the sections to 24 students each although a smaller number would be better. The course is given only in the College of Literature, Science, and The Arts. It is entirely elective, and is not open to freshmen except in rare cases where especial permission is granted by the Committee on Freshman Elections. Students who have not had class work or practical training equivalent to the work of this course are required to take it before pursuing other courses in Oratory. Between 400 and 500 students elect the course during the year. Only about 3% of these are regularly enrolled in the Law School and the College of Engineering and Architecture, and these must elect the course through the College of Literature, Science, and The Arts.

AIMS. The *general* aims of this course are (1) to stimulate a desire for better speech habits and for more effective public speaking, (2) to provide the information most essential to high standards of criticism and for intelligent growth in oral expression, and (3) to provide frequent, high grade practice in speaking from the platform. Among the *specific* aims are the following: (1) to overcome stage fright, bashfulness, and backwardness—to develop self-mastery, ease, and freedom on the platform; (2) to improve stage presence and movements—to develop such qualities as strength, erectness, symmetry, harmony, and spontaneity; (3) to tone-up vocalization—to develop better distinctness, purer, richer, and more pleasing tones, and

greater vocal variety and freedom; (4) to develop clearer and more intense thinking on the platform with the complete sharing of such thought with the audience; (5) to encourage and liberate genuine emotion; (6) to cultivate the proper relationship of the speaker to the audience; (7) to give the student a practical and personal knowledge of the simplest facts of grouping, emphasis, climax, etc.

**METHODS.** The methods of the course vary with the instructors and with the needs of the students in a section. While the students are required to read some of the best textbooks and to hear and report on several public speeches, most of the theory is developed and made vital by the practical work of speaking from the platform. Each student is required to speak at least fifteen times during the semester. Most of these speeches are memorized extracts from modern addresses of a type most universal in their appeal and most interesting to college students. A few are extempore talks on topics chosen by the student. Each memorized speech is 300 to 500 words long and is given twice. However, timid and ineffective students are often sent to the platform twice on the same day and on two or three days of the week. The purpose of this is obvious. Class drills to improve stage presence and to tone-up vocalization are used only to a limited extent and are usually confined to five minutes at the beginning of the hour. Consultation, to which all students are invited and to which some are required to come, is a vital part of the work, limited in its possibilities by the heavy demands made upon the time of the instructors.

**RESULTS.** The aims of the course are accomplished in the majority of cases. The student's interest in his own speech possibilities is aroused, his ideals of good speaking are raised, and he acquires a basis for self-criticism. He gains some measure of confidence and self-control, an acceptable stage presence, freer and better gestures, more distinct and direct vocalization, and many other things that lay the foundation for future development. In general, he gets an awakened consciousness of his own limitations and possibilities and a sense of the size and importance of Public Speaking as a study and as an art.

# EDITORIAL

## THE 1917 ANNUAL CONVENTION

**I**N THE last issue of *THE QUARTERLY*, members of the Association were asked to write the Editor or the President in regard to the time and place of the next meeting. Comparatively few responded with definite information on this point, but those who did write to us were unanimously of the opinion that the session for 1917 should be held at Chicago for a period of three days, during the Christmas recess. At the convention in New York, as well as in these letters, a large number expressed the hope that the program might be extended over a longer time. It seems clear to many that we have tried to do so much in a day and a half, that we have had no time for thorough discussion of many vital problems, and above all no time for personal acquaintance. To meet this situation, it seems wise, therefore, to have a session of three days at the Christmas holiday period. With more time at our disposal, we can have section meetings—that is, gatherings of small groups of people to discuss specific problems in which all members of the convention might not be interested. One section could take up some phase of argumentation, another of speech correction, etc. Thus by more informal discussions than would be possible in a larger gathering, and with more time, it is believed that the annual convention will be more helpful to the members of the Association. At any rate, it is worth while to try out some such plan. The Executive Committee has, therefore, in accordance with a vote of power given it at the last convention, decided that the Annual Convention of 1917 will be held in Chicago for a period of three days during the Christmas Holidays.

Now, we desire to arrange the program at once, and in this matter you can help us. *You* means the reader of these lines. Please answer this question: What specific topics would you like to hear discussed? Let us know *now*. If you are a live teacher

of Public Speaking, you must have some particular problem that bothers you, or some method that brings results, or some question of theory or of fact upon which you want more light. Think it over immediately, then put it in the form of a simple proposition for discussion, and mail it *at once* to Professor James L. Lardner, 810 Milburn St., Evanston, Illinois.

#### BACK NUMBERS OF THE QUARTERLY

THE supply of copies of the early numbers of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL is practically exhausted. Subscriptions are still coming in, especially from libraries, asking for the complete file from the beginning. It has occurred to the Board of Editors that there are probably in the hands of the readers of THE QUARTERLY now some fifty or sixty extra numbers of the first issues of THE QUARTERLY. Extra copies were sent in the beginning to a number of people for distribution and for use for various purposes in promoting the interests of THE QUARTERLY. Also contributors to THE QUARTERLY have received a few extra copies of numbers carrying their articles. We are now going to ask each member of the Association who has on hand any extra copies of any of the numbers in Volumes I and II, if they will be good enough to donate these copies to the National Association. We are not, of course, suggesting that any one break his complete file, but if you have extra copies, or know where extra copies are which are not serving a useful purpose, you will be rendering real service to THE QUARTERLY and to the Association by mailing such copies at once to the Banta Publishing Company, Menasha, Wisconsin. They will be the property of the Association and the financial return from their sale will go entirely to the Association. Not only will they be financially helpful, but also they can be made to serve a useful end for all time in completing various library files. For these two reasons we very urgently request that you look through your shelves at once, and sort out all extra copies belonging to the two volumes, and send them at once to the Banta Publishing Company. This will be a real contribution to THE QUARTERLY, and will mean very little to the people who make it, provided they have left a complete file.

## PERIODICALS

READERS will observe in this issue of THE QUARTERLY the initiation of a new separate department headed "Periodicals." In the last few numbers of THE QUARTERLY we have tried to carry in a sub-section of the Forum Department, headed "In other journals," comments on and references to periodical literature in our field appearing elsewhere than in THE QUARTERLY. It has now been decided by the Board of Editors to make this a separate department. There are a number of considerations dictating this change, chief among which is the hope that this increased attention to periodical literature will cause large numbers of the readers of THE QUARTERLY to be more helpful in the matter of gathering these comments. The number of periodicals in which items of interest to readers of THE QUARTERLY may appear from time to time is very large. It is impossible that all such magazines come under the observation of any one person or the members of any small group. Our desire to make this section on periodicals a *complete* guide to periodical literature published elsewhere than in THE QUARTERLY, can be accomplished only with thorough-going coöperation of a very large circle of readers. Please bear the needs of this department in mind when you are reading your magazines at home, or looking over the publications in the library or the club. If you have not time to send in a brief report of any item discovered, a postal card giving exact reference, sent to any member of the Editorial Board will be very gratefully received, and will contribute much toward making the next number of THE QUARTERLY more interesting and more helpful.

## BEGINNING COURSES

THIS issue of THE QUARTERLY presents to the readers three articles dealing with beginning courses in university departments of public speaking. The universities and departments represented, Cornell, Michigan, and Texas, were chosen as good representatives of the different sections of the country in which these institutions are located. It is hoped that these articles will be helpful to the readers of THE QUARTERLY who wish to know in considerable detail exactly what large university

departments are doing in their beginning work. We hope that these articles will serve as a basis for some discussion and comments in the pages of *THE QUARTERLY*. We invite questions, suggestions, and criticisms. At a number of professional gatherings in recent years statements of what is done, and what should be done, in beginning courses have received considerable attention, and brought forth strong differences of opinion. It is believed that the publication of carefully prepared statements of what such universities as these three mentioned are doing in beginning courses, will lay an excellent foundation for very much better discussion of this question at future professional gatherings, perhaps at the convention next Christmas. Especially will this be true if these articles are followed in July and October by further discussion and criticism from various readers of *THE QUARTERLY*.

In order to further this particular discussion still more, *THE QUARTERLY* will publish in July three similar articles dealing with foundation courses in three colleges, located in different sections of the country, and representing both women's and men's institutions. Suggestions for similar series on other problems to be undertaken in later issues of *THE QUARTERLY* will be very gladly received from any of our readers.

# THE FORUM

## A PRACTICAL HIGH SCHOOL SPEAKING CONTEST

ELMER HARRISON WILDS

Dakota Wesleyan University

**F**OR many years past we have had here in South Dakota a number of State High School speaking contests some conducted by High School organizations themselves and others under the auspices of certain colleges. But every one of these contests has been devoted to declamations or committed orations. I have observed these contests closely and have noticed the methods followed in training pupils for them and I have come to feel that these declamation contests and committed oration contests may be all right as far as they go, but they do not furnish the high school student with the kind of public speaking training he most needs. From this feeling and with a desire to give to the high school students of our state the kind of public speaking training that would be of practical value to them in meeting the actual speech-making demands made upon them in their everyday life, I devised the contest I am about to describe.

This new departure in the way of high school speaking contests for the state of South Dakota is known as the Extemporaneous Speaking Contest and is to be held each year under the auspices of Dakota Wesleyan University. We have extended a cordial invitation to every high school in the state to enter into these contests and to send representatives to Mitchell each year to compete in the final state contest. We have called attention to the fact that the calls for making speeches of a practical type at banquets, club meetings, civic functions, and similar affairs, is so great as to demand training along that line in the high school. The immediate, practical value of training for the occasional speech has been shown by the author of an article in the April



number of the *QUARTERLY JOURNAL*.<sup>1</sup> The method of preparation in this contest is very similar to the method commonly used in formulating the occasional speech in actual practice.

Our invitation has met with prompt consideration and an enthusiastic response. We have had letters from high school principals in every part of the state approving the plan and assuring us of their hearty coöperation. It is with a feeling that the details of this type of contest may be of interest to those in other sections of the country that I am setting them down here and reporting the experiment for publication.

The contest is open to the students of every high school in the state of South Dakota. The contest is open to both boys and girls. The only eligibility rule is that the contestant be a bona-fide student carrying at least two-thirds of the regular amount of school work. In the state contest at Mitchell only one student from each school may compete. This student may be selected by the local high school in any way it sees fit. It has been suggested, however, in the announcement sent out, that each high school hold a local contest and that the winner of this local contest be sent to Mitchell as the school's representative in the state contest. In these local contests any number of students may compete.

Two prizes will be offered to the winners of the state contest. The first prize is a Scholarship in the University for a full year. The second prize is a Scholarship in the University for a half year. These Scholarships will be good any time after the winner has completed his course in the high school he represents. The schools represented by the winners will be awarded suitable trophies. It has been suggested that the local high schools offer prizes to the winners in the various local contests.

All contestants as well as high school teachers and parents of contestants will be entertained by the University. The students of the University will feature special entertainments on the day of the contest. It has been suggested to the high schools that an admission fee to the local contests be charged. This will, in practically every case, cover the traveling expenses of the school's representative to the state contest.

In both the local and the state contest, the speeches are to be made extemporaneously. A list of twenty subjects, with a brief Bibliography of readings on each subject, has been sent out. The

<sup>1</sup>French, John C. *Classroom Use of the Occasional Speech*, *QUAR. JOUR.*, vol. II, p. 167.

contestant is to read widely and carefully on all these subjects. An hour before the time of the contest each contestant draws for a subject from this list. He is then placed in a room without books or paper to think out his speech. The contestants then take their place on the platform together and speak in order, according to lot. No speech may exceed ten minutes in length. The local contest and the state contest are both to be conducted in the same way, using the same list of subjects.

The subjects are those most prominently before the American public at the present time. The readings have been selected from periodicals most readily accessible anywhere and from issues of recent date. If the contestant desires to read more widely, it has been suggested that he consult the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature for additional references.

This scheme may receive some criticism, first, because it requires high school students to be prepared to discuss twenty subjects of the nature of those given here, and, second, because it assigns such general subjects for ten minute speeches, instead of a definite limited phase of a single subject. I believe that these objections can be answered satisfactorily. In the first place, all the subjects given are of current interest and of present day importance. Any high school student who reads the newspapers at all should be tolerably well informed on all of them even before he begins his planned reading. The purpose of this contest is not merely to train speakers—it is to make well-informed citizens as well by promoting a desire to keep in touch with current events and by calling attention to the sources of current history. Time spent in reading up for such a contest can never be wasted, and from my observation, I know that if as much time is spent on the preparation for this contest as there has been given in this state to preparation for a declamatory contest, the high school pupil will be well able to discuss any of these topics intelligently and fluently.

In the second place, one of the aims of this contest is to develop the ability to plan a speech—to give some training in the selection and weighing of a mass of material. When a single phase of a subject is assigned, this work is done for the pupil and he loses this training. From his wide reading, the pupil should be able to determine the phases of the question that are of

most importance and confine himself to an adequate presentation of these limited phases. He thus learns to limit the scope of his speech and to use only those phases of the general subject that are vital to his purpose. Of course, I am counting on the high school teachers to call the attention of the pupil to these well-known principles of speaking.

I have been using these same subjects, with the accompanying selections for readings, as assignments for speeches in my Freshman Public Speaking classes, and it is with the expectation that they may be of some use to others that I am giving them here.

1. COMPULSORY ARBITRATION OF LABOR DISPUTES.

*Independent*, Oct. 9, '16, 62. *Literary Digest*, Sept. 2, '16, 543. *Nation*, Aug. 17, '16, 145. *New Republic*, May 6, '16, 12; Sept. 30, '16, 222. *Outlook*, Sept. 13, '16, 56; Oct. 14, '16, 256. *Survey*, Sept. 24, '16, 623. *Review of Reviews*, Oct. '16, 394.

2. THE CITY MANAGER PLAN.

*Review of Reviews*, May '13, 599; Feb. '14, 144; June '14, 714. *Collier's*, Jan. 3, '14, 5; Oct. 16, '15, 9. *Literary Digest*, Aug. 30, '13, 308; July 31, '15, 199; June 24, '15, 147. *American City*, July '13, 25; Dec. '13, 523; July '14, 11. *Outlook*, Aug. 23, '13, 887. *Independent*, Dec. 21, '14, 433; Apr. 3, '16, 40.

3. THE PUBLIC DEFENDER.

*World's Work*, May '14, 18. *Review of Reviews*, Dec. '14, 741. *Everybody's*, Aug. '14, 246. *Independent*, Oct. 18, '15, 86, 94; Jan. 24, '16, 140. *New Republic*, Aug. 14, '15, 47. *Outlook*, Jan. 24, '14, 157; Mar. 28, '14, 660; Aug. 8, '14, 828. *Nation*, July 30, '14, 124. *North American*, June '15, 823.

4. SHOULD THE UNITED STATES FIGHT.

*New Republic*, Apr. 22, '16, 303. *Current Opinion*, June '15, 379, 394. *Everybody's*, Jan. '16, 2. *Independent*, Apr. 17, '16, 102; May 8, '16, 228. *Outlook*, Mar. 22, '16, 646; Dec. 15, '15, 893. *Independent*, Jan. 17, '16, 81. *Literary Digest*, Mar. 13, '16, 537; Sept. 16, '16, 661. *World's Work*, Nov. '16, 8.

5. NATIONAL PROHIBITION.

*Atlantic*, Dec. '15, 739; June '15, 735; Apr. '16, 523. *Independent*, June 22, '14, 524; May 8, '16, 210; Dec. 4, '16, 432. *Outlook*, Jan. 19, '16, 120; Jan. 3, '14, 49; Mar. 14, '14, 566; July 4, '14, 529; July 18, '14, 644; Jan. 19, '16, 119. *Review of Reviews*, Dec. '15, 748; Feb. '15, 215. *Current Opinion*, Apr. '13, 272. *Literary Digest*, Oct. 2, '15, 696; Jan. 2, '15, 8. *North American*, Dec. '15 to Dec. '16, every issue.

6. THE RAILROAD EIGHT-HOUR LAW.

*New Republic*, Sept. 9, '16, 130; Sept. 30, '16, 208; Dec. 2, '16, 114; Oct. 21, '16, 297. *Current Opinion*, Oct. '16, 219. *Review of Reviews*, Oct. '16, 361; Nov. '16, 474; Oct. '16, 389. *Outlook*, Sept. 13, '16, 66; Oct. 11, '16, 342; Sept.

13, '16, 56. *Literary Digest*, Oct. 7, '16, 875; Sept. 16, '16, 718. *Independent*, Oct. 2, '16, 5; Oct. 9, '16, 62.

7. A LEAGUE TO ENFORCE PEACE.

*Survey*, June 10, '16, 281. *New Republic*, Nov. 18, '16, 60; June 3, '16, 102. *Outlook*, Nov. 8, '16, 524; Apr. 12, '16, 831; Sept. 20, '16, 118. *Independent*, June 5, '16, 358; May 22, '16, 264. *Literary Digest*, Nov. 11, '16, 1238. *Nation*, Nov. 2, '16, 413.

8. THE FEDERAL CHILD LABOR LAW.

*Review of Reviews*, Oct. '16, 423. *Literary Digest*, Mar. 4, '16, 553; Sept. 2, '16, 547; Aug. 5, '16, 290. *New Republic*, Mar. 18, '16, 171, 182; Feb. 5, '16, 8. *Outlook*, Jan. 26, '16, 168; Feb. 16, '16, 358; Feb. 23, '16, 404; Aug. 16, '16, 882. *Survey*, Aug. 26, '16, 533; Feb. 19, '16, 596; Apr. 15, '16, 69. *Independent*, July 31, '16, 150.

9. IMPROVING THE RURAL SCHOOLS.

*Review of Reviews*, July '16, 69. *Education*, Mar. '16, 425; June '16, 639, 680, 634, 646, 650. *Survey*, Apr. 15, '16, 75. *Collier's*, Apr. 22, '16, 22. *Outlook*, July 26, '16, 717. *American City* (T. & C. ed) Oct. '16, 381.

10. WOMEN AND THE WAR.

*Outlook*, July 26, '16, 703; May 10, '16, 96; June 28, '16, 483; Feb. 9, '16, 333. *Collier's*, Oct. 28, '16, 20. *Survey*, Sept. 16, '16, 597; Aug. 5, '16, 475. *Nation*, Aug. 24, '16, 170; Dec. 20, '16, 458. *Atlantic*, June '16, 837; Jan. '16, 1. *Current Opinion*, Aug. '16, 113; Sept. '16, 188.

11. THE COUNTRY CHURCH.

*Survey*, Dec. 25, '15, 362; Jan. 29, '16, 513. *Literary Digest*, Aug. 5, '16, 309; May 13, '16, 1373; Oct. 1, '16, 897. *Everybody's*, May '16, 613. *Literary Digest*, May 6, '16, 1282. *Current Opinion*, Feb. '16, 112. *Outlook*, Feb. 23, '16, 466; Dec. 22, '15, 929. *Ladies' Home Journal*, Apr. '16, 31.

12. SUBMARINE WARFARE.

*Outlook*, Nov. 8, '16, 523; Apr. 12, '16, 817; Oct. 18, '16, 358; Nov. 15, '16, 581; Jan. 5, '16, 2. *Literary Digest*, Apr. 1, '16, 887; Dec. 2, '16, 1145; Oct. 21, '16, 1015; Apr. 15, '16, 1053; Mar. 25, '16, 810; Dec. 2, '16, 1451. *World's Work*, Dec. '15, 119. *Nation*, Oct. 12, '16, 337. *North American*, May '16, 661, 665. *Independent*, Nov. 20, '16, 305.

13. ATROCITIES OF THE WAR.

*Literary Digest*, Sept. 9, '16, 601; Nov. 25, '16, 1396; Feb. 19, '16, 440; Oct. 7, '16, 96. *Independent*, Nov. 20, '16, 304; May 29, '16, 331. *Outlook*, Nov. 22, '16, 619; Dec. 8, '15, 820; Sept. 6, '16, 4. *Nation*, Nov. 23, '16, 482.

14. COUNTRY LIFE IN AMERICA.

*New Republic*, Sept. 2, '16, 112. *American City* (T. & C. ed) Oct. '16, 390; Feb. '16, 127. *Survey*, July 29, '16, 455; Apr. 8, '16, 51. *Scribners'*, Dec. '16, 770. *Independent*, Mar. 6, '16, 336. *Review of Reviews*, Sept. '16, 309. *Current Opinion*, Feb. '16, 133. *Education*, June '16, 630.

## 15. THE EUROPEAN WAR AND CHRISTIANITY.

*Current Opinion*, Nov. '16, 332; Jan. '16, 44; Mar. '16, 189. *Literary Digest*, Sept. 30, '16, 836; Sept. 23, '16, 750; June 3, '16, 1637; Aug. 26, '16, 462; July 29, '16, 255; Sept. 16, '16, 674. *Outlook*, Jan. 19, '16, 129. *Delineator*, Dec. '16, 89. *Nation*, Aug. 31, '16, 195. *Review of Reviews*, Feb. '16, 231.

## 16. JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES.

*Century*, Feb. '16, 541; Mar. '16, 673. *New Republic*, Dec. 11, '15, 136; Feb. 5, '16, 10. *Independent*, Oct. 16, '16, 91. *World Outlook*, Dec. '16, 9, 121. *Nation*, Dec. 23, '15, 5; Aug. 31, '16, 202. *Literary Digest*, Sept. 2, '16, 551; Apr. 15, '16, 1051; Dec. 18, '16, 1114; Sept. 16, '16, 662; Jan. 1, '16, 12. *World's Work*, June '16, 140. *North American*, May, '16, 675. *Outlook*, Dec. 22, '15, 994; Oct. 18, '16, 384.

## 17. THE NEW RUSSIA.

*Collier's*, Apr. 8, '16, 10; May 6, '16, 8. *Century*, Sept. '16, 543. *Harper's Weekly*, Jan. 1, '16, 9. *Outlook*, Dec. 29, '15, 1041, 1022; Mar. 8, '16, 540. *Current Opinion*, June '16, 394; Jan. '16, 20. *Review of Reviews*, July '16, 102; June '16, 746; Oct. '16, 435. *Everybody's*, June '16, 661. *New Republic*, Apr. 1, '16, 236. *Literary Digest*, Apr. 22, '16, 1182. *Survey*, Feb. 12, '16, 568.

## 18. HOURS OF LABOR.

*Literary Digest*, Sept. 2, '16, 543. *Survey*, May 6, '16, 164; June 3, '16, 269; Sept. 23, '16, 613; Oct. 28, '16, 95; May 27, '16, 221; Apr. 15, '16, 73; Apr. 1, '16, 5. *Outlook*, July 5, '16, 553; Apr. 26, '16, 939. *Review of Reviews*, Jan. '16, 167. *Current Opinion*, Oct. '16, 277. *New Republic*, Apr. 22, '16, 306. *Independent*, Apr. 24, '16, 123.

## 19. THE LITERACY TEST FOR IMMIGRANTS.

*Independent*, Feb. 14, '16, 234; Feb. 29, '12, 459; Feb. 8, '12, 304. *Atlantic*, Sept. '12, 388. *Harper's Weekly*, Oct. 19, '12, 9; Dec. 23, '12, 18; July 26, '13, 10. *Literary Digest*, May 25, '12, 1088; May 4, '12, 923. *North American*, July '10, 56; Jan. '12, 102; Feb. '12, 201. *World's Work*, July '13, 257. *Outlook*, Feb. 16, '11, 357; Dec. 23, '11, 936; Feb. 22, '13, 377. *Survey*, June 14, '13, 370; Jan. 18, '13, 497; Jan. 4, '13, 419.

## 20. THE SITUATION WITH MEXICO.

*New Republic*, July 1, '16, 210; June 24, '16, 184. *Independent*, July 17, '16, 79; Nov. 27, '16, 339; July 10, '16, 54; July 17, '16, 79; July 24, '16, 122; June 26, '16, 500. *Review of Reviews*, Nov. '16, 546; Aug. '16, 131; July '16, 13. *Outlook*, Oct. 11, '16, 306; Sept. 13, '16, 93; Jan. 26, '16, 179; June 28, '16, 451; July 5, '16, 527. *Current Opinion*, Feb. '16, 73. *Collier's*, July 15, '16, 14. *Literary Digest*, July 8, '16, 51; July 1, '16, 1; May 20, '16, 1438.

## A NEW PLAN FOR INTERCOLLEGIATE DEBATES

THE *Reed College News Letter*, for March 12, 1917, contains the following interesting announcement:

The University of Washington and the University of Oregon have both acted favorably upon a plan proposed by Reed College for a radical departure from the old system of intercollegiate debates. Under the new plan, the debates are to be held in cities other than those in which the colleges are located. The only decision rendered is to be by a popular vote of the audience, and the vote is to be on the merits of the question and not on the merits of the debate. No artificial rules are to define the ethics of debate but each speaker is free to use any methods of conviction and persuasion which seem to him fair. The speakers are to take sides only in accordance with their convictions. The authorities of the city of Tacoma have already acted favorably upon the plan for two debates to be held on the same day, one at each of the city high schools.

All these provisions are intended to remove the formal restrictions which have made many intercollegiate debates in the past seem "unreal" and "academic."

## QUESTIONS

THE QUARTERLY will be glad to publish answers to the following questions, and to publish similar requests whenever they are sent in.

"If you can turn the Forum into a question-box I would like an answer to the following:

"Why do some students give an upward inflexion to the voice at the end of nearly every sentence? What is the remedy?"

"I have noticed this fault in five or six out of a hundred students. They do not seem to be aware of the fault and they cannot readily break it.

"Why do some students end a sentence with a snappy, explosive tone? The last word is generally the loudest and is frequently accompanied with an upward inflexion. How may this be cured?"

B. S.

## JUDGING IN SOUTH DAKOTA

IN South Dakota there is a Quadrangular Debating League, made up of four colleges, Dakota Wesleyan University, Yankton College, Huron College, and Sioux Falls College. This year a rather unique system of judging was used. For each of the four debates, the debate coach of the college not concerned acted as sole judge, i. e., the coach of Dakota Wesleyan acted in the debate between Yankton and Sioux Falls, the debate coach of Huron in the debate between Yankton and Dakota Wesleyan, and so on around the quadrangle. Each judge in announcing his decision to the audience, explained his reasons for making his decision, thus educating the audience somewhat in the fine points of debating as it is taught. The scheme proved very popular in its first trial and will be continued next year. In the coming debate between Dakota Wesleyan University and the South Dakota State College, a modification of this scheme is used, in that H. B. Gislason, of the University of Minnesota, is to act as sole judge.

At the recent meeting of the South Dakota State Oratorical Association, on account of dissatisfaction with the old method of having five judges selected from the business men and professional men of the state, the constitution was amended so as to provide for a single judge system. This judge is to be an expert from outside the state, a recognized authority on public speaking, a teacher of oratory in one of the larger universities of the country. He is to be paid for his services. In this way it is hoped that an intelligent and impartial decision will be obtained.

E. H. W.

## VOCAL EXPRESSION IN PERSPECTIVE

ONE of my greatest difficulties in teaching the elements of vocal expression to beginning classes has been that of getting clearly before their minds a *perspective* of the whole subject. To me perspective is essential. As a student, I have always wanted to know in advance just what general results a course aimed to accomplish, so that as I went along I could have some idea of the general end towards which each day's recitation was tending. And now as a teacher I find that I can do better work if I can get before the class at the beginning some kind of gen-

eral survey of the whole to which they can repeatedly refer throughout the year, and by which they can keep constantly informed as to just where they are from day to day. The practical problem of developing some kind of outline for this purpose is the reason for this article.

In the text-book we are using, for instance, the first thing discussed relates to some purely psychological considerations of man as a psychic being. This is followed by a chapter on the vocal apparatus—a purely physical consideration. Then comes respiration and voice culture, physical considerations still, then pronunciation—partly a physical problem and partly a mental one. And so on to the end. Another book I have used has a brief opening chapter on breathing and tone production, and then immediately takes up vocal expression with reference to the four customary “elements”—melody, quality, rhythm, and dynamics. Now my object here is not to criticize either of these books, or any other book, but merely to point out that in any text-book the difficulty of keeping a clear view of the whole subject is usually present. Sequence has always been a problem in the matter of method, and usually about the only difference one can find in many books on the subject of vocal expression is a difference in sequence. One author will begin with speech quality and end with volume, another will begin with pitch and end with quality. One holds that all is quality, another that all one needs to do is think clearly and feel deeply, then speak as Nature prompts. With the relative merits, then, of any books or of all books, I am not concerned. What I am concerned with is this: assuming that you are using some kind of a text-book on the subject of expression and are trying to teach it to a class of beginners, how best can you get them to comprehend its numerous and varied aspects so that they can at the very beginning and all along understand the purpose of each day’s task? At best the subject is a complicated one. The close relationship between mind and body in all that we undertake to teach necessarily often results in confusion for the student. It is hard for him to keep a clear notion of just what he is doing this for and that for, just what today’s recitation has to do in achieving the final result. The student is not like Tennyson’s soldiers, but rather the very opposite—theirs is to reason why, and to be satisfied in advance



that there is an underlying thread of connection between what they are doing today and what they hope ultimately to achieve.

If, therefore, the following outline is of any help to other teachers it will be simply because they have felt a similar need. The outline is arranged solely with reference to the individual student as a prospective public speaker, assuming that in beginning work that is the student's chief concern. The old divisions, such as "The Man, The Subject, and The Occasion," are really all include in the outline, only they are treated from the viewpoint of the speaker, which, after all, is the way all these problems are finally treated.

This outline is, of course, far from perfect. At best it aims merely to be suggestive—merely to form a sort of panorama of the whole field of requirements necessary for the beginning student ultimately to master if he is to become a truly successful speaker. By it a student may gain a sense of proportion and be brought early in his study to see that "learning to speak" involves a longer process of preparation than is commonly supposed. The "Cultural Fundamentals" alone involve years of preparation, only the barest superficial beginnings of which can be had in a college course.

Not many books, and perhaps fewer courses, attempt to cover all that is treated in the outline. Some books are devoted solely to "The Vocal Instrument," some solely to "The Rhetoric of Speech Structure," some solely to "The Psychology of Public Speaking," some solely to "Gesture." Others are concerned chiefly with the so-called "Elements of Vocal Expression," while a few attempt to deal with nearly everything included in the outline. But even if a course or a book does not attempt to cover the whole field as a single undertaking, the value of having a comprehensive outline is none the less important. If one is studying a book devoted solely to "Gesture," the outline at once furnishes a true perspective of that particular study with reference to the whole. So with any other subdivision of the subject. The outline claims, then, to do what the title of this article indicates—give a student at the beginning of his work an idea of "Vocal Expression in Perspective."

## Outline—Man, as a Public Speaker

## I. Mind.

## A—Cultural Fundamentals.

1. Character and ideals.
2. Clear thinking.
3. Deep feeling.
4. Wide reading.
5. Sense of art values.
6. Imagination.
7. Love of beauty.
8. Power of interpretation.

"Learning to speak is primarily learning to think and feel." From "Vocal Expression in Speech," by Gordon-Lyman.

## B—Technical Fundamentals.

1. Good pronunciation (from dictionary standpoint).
  - a. Correct syllabication.
  - b. Correct vowel sound.
  - c. Correct accent.
2. Knowledge of grammar.
3. Knowledge of rhetoric, with reference to structural needs of oral discourse.
  - a. In original speeches.
    - (1) Knowledge of sources of materials.
    - (2) Knowledge of general ends and types of speeches.
    - (3) Knowledge of conversational style.
    - (4) Use of illustrations and other rhetorical devices.
    - (5) Knowledge of sound value of words.
    - (6) Simple words and simple sentence structure.
    - (7) Rhythmic element in sentences.
  - b. In interpretation of another's work.
    - (1) Knowledge of how to cut and adapt selections to particular need.
4. Knowledge of psychology of public speaking.
  - a. Principles of attention and interest.
  - b. Modern theories of emotions.
  - c. Rhythm.
  - d. Suggestion.
  - e. Crowd psychology.
  - f. Memory.
  - g. Reasoning processes.
    - (1) Belief.
    - (2) Persuasion.

## II. Body.

- A—The Vocal Instrument—in its largest sense. (Appeals to auditory sense.)

- Digitized by Google

3. *Speech-Rhythm*, or the time element in expression.
4. *Speech-Dynamics*, or the volume element in expression.
- E—Gesture, in its largest sense. (Appeals to visual sense.)
  1. Carriage of body.
  2. Personal appearance.
  3. Facial expression.
  4. Use of hands and arms.
  5. Conversational manner of meeting audience.

RAYMOND A. SWINK, *Ohio Wesleyan University.*

President Lardner announces the appointment of the following committees for the year 1916-1917:

*Membership.*

(The Secretary and the Vice-presidents.)  
Sherman Conrad, Chairman. Culver Military Academy.  
Miss Mary Yost, Vassar College.  
Everett Lee Hunt, Huron College.  
Alfred Mason Harris, Vanderbilt University.

*Research.*

J. S. Gaylord, Chairman, Normal School, Winona, Minnesota.  
Dr. Smiley Blanton, University of Wisconsin.  
H. B. Gislason, University of Minnesota.  
Geo. McKie, University of North Carolina.  
Dr. D. W. Redmond, College of the City of New York.  
A. T. Robinson, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.  
J. A. Winans, Cornell University.  
Chas. H. Woolbert, Cambridge, Mass.

*High School Contests.*

A. H. Johnson, Chairman, Hamline University.  
J. Q. Adams, University of Louisiana.  
C. W. Boardman, Central High School, Minneapolis.  
J. W. Wetzel, Yale University.

*College Entrance Requirements.*

Glenn N. Merry, University of Iowa.  
W. P. Daggett, University of Maine.  
Loren Gates, Miami University.

**C. W. Paul, University of Virginia.**

**H. M. Tilroe, Syracuse University.**

***Distribution of Briefs.***

**C. D. Hardy, Chairman, Northwestern University.**

**F. E. Brown, South Dakota State College.**

**R. D. T. Hollister, University of Michigan.**

**V. A. Ketcham, Ohio State University.**

# PERIODICALS

*A NEW PLAN FOR HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING.* In *The English Journal* for February, 1917, there is a very suggestive article entitled "A New Plan for High School Debating in Montana," by George R. Coffman of the University of Montana. The two paragraphs here quoted will furnish sufficient details of the new plan for the guidance of any who wish to try the Montana method.

These representatives did not know until after they came to Missoula upon which side of the question they were to debate. At noon of the day of the final contest they were called together and paired off by lot in groups of two, one half on the affirmative and one half on the negative. The slip which the contestant drew indicated the issue on which he and his opponent were to argue. Thus, with the question, "Resolved, That the United States should own and operate all interstate railroads," the first group had the issue, "Is the present system adequate?" the second group, "Would government ownership and operation make for better regulation and administration of interstate railroads?" the third group, "Would government ownership be better for the public?" and the fourth group, "Is government ownership practicable?" This analysis was made by individuals outside the competing schools. At this preliminary conference a definition of interstate railroads, which was afterward printed on the programs for the audience, was agreed upon. Following this conference, the debaters had the afternoon for the organization or reorganization of their material. They were at liberty to secure further information from any source, but were pledged on their honor not to secure any help in the organization, arrangement, or delivery of their material. Certain tables in the reading-room of the University library were reserved for the use of the contestants during the afternoon.

At the contest each affirmative speaker in the series of pairs had five minutes in which to present his direct argument and three

minutes for rebuttal, which was given after his opponent left the floor. Each negative speaker devoted the first three minutes of his time to rebuttal and the last five to direct argument. The negative speaker had a two-minute interval after the affirmative closed in which to complete his preparation for rebuttal. No group of speakers heard those who preceded them. As soon as the speakers in one group had finished, they left the stage and the next group came on. No decision was given on the question itself. Judgment was based purely on individual merit, and contestants were ranked, first, second, third, etc., as in the other interscholastic events. If there had been an odd number of contestants, according to the arrangement, there would have been three contestants in one series, one on the affirmative and two on the negative."

*SPEECH CULTURE IN HOLLAND.* The *Medical Record* for September, 1916, publishes an article on "Speech, its Culture and Refinement; what is done for it in Holland," by N. J. Pooock Van Baggen of The Hague. The readers of THE QUARTERLY will doubtless be interested in the following quotations from this article, particularly the paragraphs dealing with the work in voice and speech correction which is being done in Holland.

"We learn to distinguish in the speaker and singer four elements: (1) A motor element (the breath); (2) a vibrating element (the voice); (3) a forming element (the articulation); (4) a resonant element the co-vibration of the walls of the vocal instrument."....."Normal speech and singing depend on the faultless action and the exact harmonious coöperation of the four elements. This coöperation is so strict that even the least deviation of one of the parts is of direct influence on the other elements."....."Very many times I have been asked in America if, when I speak of the training of the voice, it is elocution that I mean. It is not. The training of the voice precedes the lessons of the elocutionist. This training is given by what we call here the 'leeraar in het methodisch spreken,' which means: 'Specialist or expert in normal speech and voice hygienics.' The sphere of action of the expert implies not only the training of the healthy voice, but also the treatment of all the voice afflictions which appear after serious diseases of the throat such as diphtheria, angina, etc.,

and after those affections caused by the too general misuse of the voice as well by speakers as by singers. Most of the time the expert is also specialist for correcting speech impediments and for gymnastics of the respiratory organs."

"With regard to the treatment of the voice affected through misuse or illness, I can say that I have found it nowhere so complete as in Holland. During my investigations regarding the care for the voice and the culture of speech in the different countries, I have been astonished to find that in some countries this special treatment is altogether unknown, as for instance in France and in the United States; while in other places, as in Berlin, it was introduced by Dutch specialists and received with general appreciation. Since the last twenty years the culture and refinement of speech in Holland has largely improved. The conservatories for singing at Amsterdam and at The Hague, as well as the school for actors and actresses have long had their own expert specialist and every pupil is obliged to go through a severe treatment for general voice hygienics and purification of the accent.

Particular care is also given to the training of the voice and the refinement of the speech of the teachers. To every Dutch training school for teachers is attached nowadays a specialist for voice hygienics who is salaried by the government or by the municipality to which the school belongs. Moreover, in the large towns, as in The Hague and Amsterdam, the municipality has appointed a specialist for voice hygienics, who gives courses free of charge to the teachers of the municipal schools. Those courses were started to combat the throat disease (the same as clergyman's sore throat) to which the teachers, in the exercise of their profession, are so frequently subject. When the teachers suffer from the throat the visiting physician of the school examines them and, if necessary, sends them to the courses for voice hygienics. For the teachers with a healthy voice those courses are not obligatory but on his (or her) demand, he (or she) can follow the course. Generally, all the teachers of the municipality schools take a course because it gives them a better chance for an appointment and for promotion when they have well-trained voice and refined speech.

It is a matter of course that those trained teachers exert a favorable, refining influence over the speech of their pupils. I have often noticed that the young teachers, who have followed the



course take pleasure in correcting the speech and purifying the accent of the children, who are under their care and demand from them a faultless pronunciation. Besides the care for the voice and for the refinement of the speech in general, the speech defects are specially attended to. In every town of some importance there is nowadays a specialist for speech impediments attached to the public schools and salaried by the municipality. In the large towns, as Amsterdam and The Hague, the specialist has a staff of assistants. They visit the public schools regularly and at the request of the teacher examine the pupils who suffer from any speech defect. After the diagnosis is made the children go to the municipal institution which their case demands. Some years ago the specialists for voice hygienics in Holland founded the Dutch association for the speech culture, which meets regularly. In those meetings special cases are discussed, and in particular the measures to be taken to further the general culture and refinement of speech are advocated."

*In the Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, for January, 1917, p. 325, Dr. Smiley Blanton reports "*An Unusual Case of Speech Inhibition.*" It concerns a healthy, bright boy of ten who will speak only to parents and brothers. After being nearly a year in kindergarten he would sometimes whisper very softly. When his surroundings are changed he will not even whisper for months. At home he seems to try to avoid speaking, but does speak quite normally at times. But even when he does talk to his mother about other things, she cannot get him to tell her why he does not talk regularly. The article concludes as follows:

"It seems to me that this is a case of psychoneurosis due to some mental conflict. It is an accentuation of the fear and timidity which many high-strung and neurotic children suffer from when they first leave home for school. It is not uncommon to find children who did not talk for several months after entering kindergarten. The presence of strangers and strange surroundings, and the separation from the home and the mother is enough to inhibit speech altogether for a time. Now, if we imagine this condition accentuated, become permanent, probably affecting the subconscious mind, it would explain Stephen's condition. It would be almost interesting to psychoanalyze him and see what

goes on in his mind, but this seems impossible as he will not talk nor even write for anyone except his brothers and parents. And even his mother cannot get him to tell her why he does not talk. It is a serious neurosis as regards his adjustment to life, and it is doubtful if he will ever recover enough to enable him to speak and act normally.

"This case shows that parents and teachers should not neglect to take notice of cases of excessive timidity in children that prevents them from speaking when in school or with strangers. This excessive fear is due to infantile conflicts and repressions and lack of adjustment, and unless these conditions are removed, a serious neurosis may develop."

*KINAESTHESIA, A NEW AID TO THE TEACHING OF SPEECH.* BY JAMES SONNETT GREENE, M.D., *The English Journal*, April, 1917, p. 248.

This article was read before the National Council of Teachers of English in New York City, December 2, 1916. Teachers interested in the correction of defective speech will doubtless wish to study the whole article. The following extracts from it will suggest its significance:

"When a child enters our schools, its primary knowledge of the sounds of our language is acquired mainly through the sense of hearing aided by the sense of vision. If this training were sufficient, children would have no difficulties; but modern education has proved concretely that contemporaneous sense training in the early education of the child is of vast importance. Physiologists, psychologists, and neurologists agree in this opinion. Auditory and visual sense training is only a partial appeal, and in a vast number of cases of a faulty appeal. . . .

"In recent years, when desiring complete sense appeal, psychologists have realized the importance of the tactile-motor (kinaesthetic) sense, which occupies the whole of the post-central convolution of the brain. . . . If a given letter is shown and sounded and a child is asked to trace it, four sensations develop contemporaneously, viz., the auditory, the visual, the tactile, and the muscular (kinaesthesia) sensations.

"Through the study and care of a large number of defective-speech cases both here and abroad I have come to place a great

deal of reliance on kinaesthesia or kinaesthetic imagery; and by that I mean the sense of muscular movement of the parts which are active in producing speech, as the tongue, lips, jaw, etc. The idea presented itself rather forcibly to me: If kinaesthesia is so important, why not utilize it in the teaching of speech to normal children, especially since mental images in most of us are kinaesthetic as well as auditory?

"The kinaesthetic sense is very often confused with the tactile sense, the sense of touch; but of course you realize that they are separate and distinct from each other. The tactile sense expresses contact between the fingers and an object, while the kinaesthetic sense expresses muscular movement.

"In our work with defective-speech cases we always try to find out to what extent each patient uses his different senses in the process of changing his speech thought into spoken words, and results have proved that kinaesthetic imagery, or the feeling of muscular movements, plays a very important rôle in the ultimate cure of cases. . . .

"I propose to try to show the great necessity for a wider knowledge of the sense of muscular movements of our speech organs. This can be best attained through a demonstration of radiographic plates that show the different positions assumed by the vocal organs in uttering the fundamental sounds of our language. These plates give an accurate representation of the true relative position of structures which lie at different levels from the surface, and the structures are as large as they appear in nature. The plates provide a correct record of the positions assumed by the vocal organs. The positions are based upon recognized phonetic standards, advanced by such phoneticians as Bell, Sweet, Rippman, Gutzmann, and others.

"These plates, numbering about thirty-two, show the different positions assumed by the vocal organs in making the vowels and consonants. In utilizing them to teach a child a certain position, as, for instance, when a child says 'Tandy' for 'Candy,' substituting a 't' for a 'k' sound, and cannot be made to hear and imitate the correct sound, the teacher seeing the correct position on the plate, can very readily make the child place his vocal organs in the proper position and say 'candy' instead of 'tandy.'

"Another feature which I wish to point out about these plates is their power of promoting attention and concentration. Attention is the basis of concentration, and concentration is an indispensable aid to a child's acquisition of speech. You all know and have experienced how futile one's efforts to instruct a child are if the child cannot be made to pay attention. When first teaching the sounds of speech to a child a great deal depends on the power of directing and sustaining the child's attention. This new aid to the teaching of speech (kinaesthesia), introduced in the classroom and taught through a series of charts and stereoscopic pictures, will prove of great value in attracting and concentrating children's attention. What child does not delight to see and imitate that which it sees in pictures?

"In conclusion, speech is a matter of association and the different senses must be appealed to. The more clues there are for memory the better are the chances for recall. The mechanism of articulate language is perfected in children between the ages of two and seven, for at that period perception and motility are marked, memory is tenacious, and muscular mechanisms become fixed. Connections between the auditory and the motor channels of spoken language influence the complicated movements of our vocal organs which produce articulate speech, and perfection of these movements depends upon hearing and association. . . .

"After the fundamental movements of the vocal organs are firmly established for speech, the mind will gradually free itself from the consideration of mechanical details and the speech will be distinct, clear, and correct.

"The only way for child to attain this subconscious automatic speech stage is through the primary possession of correct movements of the parts concerned in speech, and for this he naturally looks to his teacher. A thorough knowledge of the plates on the part of the teacher will readily adjust any irregularities of sound formation in the pupil."

*A SURVEY OF SPEECH DEFECTS.* By SMILEY BLANTON, M.D. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, December, 1916, p. 581.

This article includes the result of a survey of seventeen of the schools in Madison, Wisconsin, the aim of which was to

make a careful first-hand study of speech defects and to compare the results with those gained by other investigators.

Speech defects were classified under three heads: stuttering, lisping, and miscellaneous. A further division under each head of mild, medium, and severe was used. In no case was any defect included which was not so marked as to be recognizable by the casual observer.

Twelve public and five parochial schools, including 4,862 children, were examined. The children ranged from 4 to 18 years.

The total number of speech defects noted was 277. One hundred one of these were females and 176 males. This is 5.7% of the number examined; stutterers, .72%, lisps, 3.27%, and miscellaneous, 1.71%.

The percentage of protruding and retracted jaws among speech defectives was 35.7% and the large number of 49 or 17.7% of children with defective speech showed a mental retardation.

Records of a number of cases are given in detail, showing the part played by hereditary conditions, shock, language conflict, etc.

The article also contains plotted curves and plates illustrative of important points.

*WHAT THE BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS ARE DOING FOR CHILDREN OF DEFECTIVE SPEECH.* By THERESA

A. DACEY, Director of Speech Improvement Classes, *Educational Standards*, January, 1917, p. 187.

All teachers interested in speech improvement should find this article very encouraging. It discusses briefly certain common defects and gives a summary of speech improvement work in Boston schools. We quote two paragraphs showing something of the status of this work in Boston.

"The Boston Public Schools are giving these children new life, new hope, new ambition, new virtues, and generous help in the realm of progress and happiness: by an honest acknowledgment of speech defects throughout its system; by effective systematic organization of speech centers as soon as experienced

grade teachers, selected to direct them, are trained as specialists; by careful classification of speech defects and assignment of children having them, into various small groups, so that individual correction may be effectively accomplished; by sympathetic coöperation of school nurses and physicians toward relief from or removal of physical, mental, or moral obstructions; by parents' hearty coöperation or secured coöperation through a plan of education and follow-up work which helps them to recognize the speech defects of their children and spend a portion of their time, patience, and confidence toward the children's correction; by regular grade teachers' coöperation toward prompt and regular attendance to the group work; by treatment of these children as a precious part of the community and by encouragement of their efforts to perfect their faculties of speech control and initiative, even to a higher degree of perfection, in a large majority of cases, than so-called normal children attain, of equal number and like intellect; by the adoption of a method of correction which tends to open the hearts and minds of these children and free them from the bugbear of isolation, imitation, ridicule, rigidity, frigidity, and retardation.

"Hence the School Committee has ordered the establishment of four speech centers in selected parts of the city which draw from the neighboring school districts, within walking distance. An experienced grade teacher of several years' experience in speech work has been selected to direct and she has taken several courses: medical or physical, psychological and pedagogical, with a taste of psychoanalysis to help in the study of character or the moral side and to permit needy, tactful suggestion; vocal and voice work, and various methods of oral expression. The character study is the most important for us and then a scientific study of modern phonetics and their presentation and application in a pleasing, natural, systematic, direct method."

## NEW BOOKS

*A Handbook of Oral Reading.* BY LEE EMERSON BASSETT, Cambridge: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1917. Cloth, pp. 353. \$1.60.

Professor Bassett has given us an interesting, very carefully planned text-book. If the material is not new, it is arranged in an attractive form and reflects a commendable effort in the author to project the latest pedagogy of reading. At this time when "special emphasis is placed upon oral composition, public speaking, and similar courses," which make "no very serious demand on the voice merely giving out information, uttering facts, narrating incidents, or stating beliefs," and "the student is in danger of dropping into hard, mechanical, and dull manner of speech," Professor Bassett, wisely, in his introduction urges the need of, and directs our attention to, the importance of teaching reading; for, as he says, "it affords distinctively valuable discipline in at least three respects: it brings the student into direct and vital contact with the thought and experiences which stimulate the mind, quicken the imagination and emotional nature, and widen the range of his knowledge and interest; it trains him to accuracy of observation and certainty of understanding which preclude superficial attention and snap judgment; and it provides the best kind of training of the expressive powers of the voice."

The book is divided into three parts—the first aims to secure *Clearness of Meaning* through a study (1) of the relation of thought to speech, (2) through grouping, (3) through pitch variation, (4) through emphasis. Part second purposes to secure *Impressiveness* through (5) *Impressiveness in Speech*, (6) through *Vocal Energy*, (7) through *Rhythm*, (8) through *Vocal Quality*, (9) through the *Music of speech*. Part third designs to develop in the students *Ease and Correctness of Speech*, (10) through *Technical Principles*, (11) through *Training of the Voice*, (12) through *Enunciation and Pronunciation*.

In the entire volume the author most commendably endeavors to break away from the old mechanics of Rush-Murdock, and to secure the impulse of feeling and thought to produce the result he

desires. In an effort, however, to show graphically the movements of the voice by diagrams, will the student not attempt to fit the voice to the diagram, and will not the result be mechanical? There is no doubt that the result depends on the instructor, and the author makes a splendid effort to overcome such results by his instruction "To Teachers," the last part of the book.

There is such a wealth of excellent selections for practice that it might seem inconsistent to complain that the book is too theoretical. The author provides a good outline and plans for sixty-four recitations, which will be very helpful to any teacher using the Handbook. This plan has too many written assignments for an oral class, too much time to be spent in learning about the author—where he lived, where he died, etc.—rather than the message and inspiration of the text. Must we follow this dry-as-dust, antiquated study of literature in order to claim a right to scholastic existence with English departments?

M. M. B.

*Public Speaking* (revised edition) BY JAMES A. WINANS, New York: The Century Company, 1917. 8vo., 526 pp. \$1.50 net.

This work, which was first published by the Sewell Publishing Company of Ithaca, in December, 1916, was republished on February 1, 1917, by The Century Co. This book was reviewed at some length in *THE QUARTERLY* for April, 1916, p. 213. There are about fifty pages of new matter. Changes of expression for the sake of clearness and new illustrations are found throughout the book; but the only radical change is in order. The matter relating to the more technical treatment of delivery is in the new edition, placed at the back of the book. Professor Winans in his preface declares that there is no certainly best order, and different teachers will wish to use this matter at different stages of their work. It matters little to them where the more technical matter is placed; and the new arrangement removes it from the path of the general reader who may wish to get more quickly to the principles of speech preparation, to the treatment of interest and persuasion. The new order seems better also for class use. The favorable comment made in the review of the original edition can all be again subscribed to. It is a great book; and its success, as proved by such an early reprinting, is a sign of professional health of which we may all be proud.

J. M. O'N.



# THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING

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No. 3

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DEMIC TEACHERS OF  
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## THE DEPARTMENT OF SPEECH AT GRINNELL

J. P. RYAN  
Grinnell College

**T**O ORGANIZE and name a department of speech is largely a local problem. The results worked out at Grinnell during the last dozen years are suitable only for Grinnell. And here nothing has been completed, but is ever changing. Our findings are of little value to others. As a rule each one should stay home, mind one's own business, and work in one's own garden. But this rule is only general and should not be too closely followed, else there would be little change in academic and professional standards. It is well to know what others are doing. It is courteous to answer the repeated requests for information about one's work. Finally it is but fair to give thanks to those who gave freely of advice and information. To all such goes gratitude. Those who find here some of their pet ideas will be well pleased; others may rest assured their ideas were equally good, but local conditions were not fit for such good ideas.

The most interesting reading which came under the eyes of the committee was on the question of name. To all teachers of public speaking, the question of name acts like the proverbial red rag. Much feeling is sure to be aroused over titles. Each one seems to have a strong personal reaction to particular phrases. A review of the questionnaire on title and names would be very interesting even if not very profitable. What follows here on name is merely the findings of the committee after most of the interest and much of the persuasion have been squeezed out.

The same treatment has been accorded to the other topics of scope, of purpose, and correlation. Only the adoptions are given; the arguments are omitted. This paper, then, contains rather a prosaic, perhaps dogmatic, statement of the scope, the purpose, the correlation, the name, and the list of courses of the department of speech in Grinnell College.

#### SCOPE

This department is devoted to the science and the art of speech. Its work, therefore, is in the fields of speaking, reading, and dramatic art. All three fields are cultivated as speech sciences and speech arts.

#### PURPOSE

The purpose of this department is to make a greater recognition of the spoken word in education; to give more emphasis to the peculiar academic disciplines of the speech sciences; to realize more fully the educational values in the study of the speech arts. As the goal of science is explanation, one of the great purposes is to discover knowledge of speech; and as the goal of art is action, so the other great purpose is studying the art of speaking well. More specifically the purpose permeating the different courses in this department are: to develop the ability to speak well; to find out knowledge of speech; to impart knowledge of social relations of speech; to develop the ability to think in terms of social life and culture; to study the vocal interpretation of the printed page and to realize the educational values in dramatic art. Through all these purposes runs the dominating purpose of our college, for this department is only one of the several differentials in realizing the purpose of a liberal arts college. The purpose of this department is best revealed in the purpose of Grinnell College.

#### ORGANIZATION

The department of speech is organized as an independent, separate department, but closely correlated with other departments, especially with the department of English. It is true the department of English needs the department of speech more than the speech needs the English, nevertheless the welfare of the speech work demands separate organization. Effective work and

healthy growth will hardly be realized until the departments of speaking are organized on their own basis. And yet those who are pleading for complete separation are as much in error as those who would leave the work of speaking buried in the department of English, Economics, or Logic. Separation without correlation spells death. This department was organized upon the two principles of complete separation, close correlation.

#### CORRELATION

As all the departments are aiming at the same purpose as the whole college, so the purpose of each department is best realized by closest correlation with one another. Correlation is working together for the same academic purpose. This department is peculiarly fitted to bring the departments together. Though there is a very distinct field of knowledge and many problems therein waiting for solution, yet the chief business of a speech department in a liberal arts college is ready service in the other fields of knowledge. Perhaps the greatest service speaking can do in our colleges today is in bringing the departments together, and thus help in eliminating the evil of departmental education. The drawing the parts of the college together is being worked out along three lines: 1. on what courses are offered, 2. on the way the courses are given, 3. on the credit given for the course. Along the first line a general departmental policy is secured and some correlation maintained through the Committee on Correlation. This committee, consisting of five members, has one member from each of the departments concerned. Along the second line, the content and conduct of the course, some correlation is secured by an exchange of syllabi. "Some correlation" may seem rather indefinite; but we have found when a sympathetic understanding of what is being attempted in other courses is reached there is apt to be a good deal of quiet correlation. Finally correlation is secured by an exchange of cards. In the statement of some of the courses, a note is appended saying: "Part of the credit for this course is based upon the student's speech in other departments." A card is printed for every student registered in the course in speaking. These cards are given to all those teachers in whose classes the same students are registered. In the other classes the student's speech is noted and recorded upon the

card. These cards are collected twice during the semester. In this way the student's credit for the course in speaking is partly based upon his speech in other departments. Correlation is one of the most vital problems of college life. Our department should do its bit. The work of correlation may be aided along these lines of the determination, the conduct, and the credit for the course.

With the department of English still closer relations are maintained. These relationships are due largely to the most cordial feelings and clear understanding of each other's work and worth. Courses are planned together, or given together and general standards maintained. In the department of English, to register for "The Teacher's Course," the student must also register for the course with the same title in the department of Speech. The classes are combined, the instructor from the English department takes the class for part of the semester, the instructor from the department of Speech takes the class for the remainder. In composition certain courses are scheduled in both departments. At present plans are under way for the correlation of the courses in literature. In every possible way close and cordial relations are being built up.

#### NAME

As was stated above though the racy reading was upon the name, yet because these remarks were nearly all personal reactions it was hardly worth while to restate these emotional outbursts. Here follows then a brief statement of the reasons which caused us to reject certain names and finally to adopt the present title. Rhetoric and Oratory were too old, pretentious, and inaccurate. Public Speaking was too narrow, indefinite, and easily perverted. The modifier "public" is of uncertain significance. The meaning of the whole term is changing rapidly. Oral English was quite misleading. Hardly anyone but the Lord and the user of the term has a clear concept of its meaning, and sometimes one of these is evidently in doubt. With some Oral English suggests merely an oral parallel of the work of the English department; with others it suggests a kind of elementary public speaking, or that part of speaking which should be done in the high school. One good teacher said: "Oral English is the

name of that thing taught by teachers of English who know little about speaking." Finally Oral English was discarded because it did not indicate or suggest the fields of speech defects, and speech culture. Oral is not a desirable word from the point of view of derivation or usage. The problems of speech are no more English than French or Russian. Interpreting a French poem or giving a Greek play quite as properly concerns the department of Speech as interpreting an English poem or giving an English play. Speech Arts and Elocution were rejected because of their connotations. The department of Speech was finally adopted because it was old, stable, short, well known, definite, extensive, and academically acceptable. In the naming of departments many American colleges have followed the principle of "the field of knowledge," or of "social activity." Under either of these principles the word speech is equally acceptable, for it may denote a definite field of academic study with definite problems, or as Professor Woolbert calls them "problems in speech science," and at the same time connote speech making; or under the principle of "social activity" the word speech readily denotes the great work of speech culture and all the informal and formal speech-making, and at the same time connotes a field for academic research. Withal the term speech seemed best. In the last analysis the best name is the one which most clearly marks off the field, stirs up the least feeling, gives the largest opportunity for work, and draws the workers closer together. The simple word speech seemed to serve our purpose best. We would not argue for the word. Is there not something to the effect that the word dies, but the spirit lives? In the spirit let us live!

#### COURSES

The courses here given are much the same as in other institutions. The only exception is the requirement of studio work. In this department to receive credit for a course three kinds of work must be done, class work, outside class work, and studio work. The class work consists of the regular work of the recitation period, outside class work covers the reports, readings, and study done out of recitation period. The studio work somewhat similar to the laboratory work comprises the technical practice and rehearsals done under the personal direction of the

instructor. In general a course with two hours' credit will necessitate one hour's studio work.

The courses in public speaking are planned to teach pupils to think clearly and to speak well, in order that each student may have in a larger measure self-expression and self-realization. The courses are:

- |        |    |  |
|--------|----|--|
| Speech | 1. | Voice Training, 2 hours.               |
| "      | 2. | Practical Public Speaking, 2 hours.    |
| "      | 3. | Forms of Public Address, 3 hours.      |
| "      | 4. | Argumentative Address, 3 hours.        |
| "      | 5. | Debating, 2 hours.                     |
| "      | 6. | Vocational Speaking—Teachers, 2 hours. |
| "      | 7. | " " —Minister, 2 hours.                |
| "      | 8. | " " —Business man, 2 hrs.              |
| "      | 9. | Speech Arts and Sciences, 2 hours.     |

The courses in reading are planned with the motive of making reading a useful and a fine art. The purpose is to realize the educational values in the printed page. The courses are:

- |        |     |   |
|--------|-----|---|
| Speech | 10. | Essentials of Interpretation, 2 hours.                      |
| "      | 11. | Vocal Interpretation of Literature, 2 hours.                |
| "      | 12. | Vocal Interpretation of the Poetry of<br>Browning, 2 hours. |

In dramatic art the underlying principle is presentation. To study drama without presentation is like studying music without instrumentation. In all courses the aims are the educational values, and the cultural development through knowledge, appreciation, and creative self-expression. As yet the only courses offered are:

- |        |     |                                   |
|--------|-----|-----------------------------------|
| Speech | 13. | Interpretation of Drama, 3 hours. |
| "      | 14. | Presentation of Drama, 2 hours.   |

As was stated in the beginning, so let it be repeated in the end: This brief account of the work at Grinnell is given because it has been asked for again and again; and not with any intention of featuring this work, nor any hope of persuading others to accept our findings. Our problems are not your problems. (Ergo thanks.) What meets our local conditions might not meet yours. Anyway nothing has been finally settled; every-



thing is changing. With the present light and present condition this account indicates the way we are going. In building up this department as more light and more money come from different sources, this program is likely to be changed though the general aims remain the same. For more light and more money, let us hope!

## VOICE TRAINING IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

LOUSSENE G. ROUSSEAU  
Kalamazoo Normal School

FOR some time it has been generally recognized, at least in educational circles, that the American voice is badly in need of training. When one of our leading periodicals finds a good voice so unusual in this country as to necessitate the following comment upon some entertainers, "Their enunciation has a clearness and purity that in America is startling";<sup>1</sup> and when one of our leading newspapers,<sup>2</sup> after commenting upon the clear voices of these same entertainers, says, "There is something wrong about a system that produces ragtime and peacock voices," we can hardly fail to realize the necessity of doing something to help matters. But when such a magazine as *Life* publishes this criticism, "The annual visit of the Yale dramatic boys with their four playlets—by no means bad entertainment, all things considered—only emphasizes again that notable American defect, bad speech," it is quite evident that we are confronted with a problem that concerns the whole American nation.

An investigation of the curriculum, not only of the elementary and secondary schools, but also of colleges and universities, shows that while English grammar, English composition, and English literature are taught everywhere, the way English should sound when it is spoken is seldom even hinted at. This failure of education to provide for the training of the simplest and most natural means of self-expression has led to the American voice.

The importance of work in the correction of voice defects in the grades has been made startlingly clear by speech surveys, conducted by capable men, in some of our large cities. Probably the most interesting is that made by Dr. Wallin in St. Louis.<sup>3</sup> Out of 89,075 children examined, 2,494 were found to be suffering from very serious defects in speech. Only the worst defects were counted, and those only where the teacher absolutely un-

<sup>1</sup> *Harper's Weekly*, January 3, 1914.

<sup>2</sup> *Springfield Republican*.

<sup>3</sup> Dr. Wallin, "A Census of Speech Defectives," *School and Society*, February 5, 1916, p. 213.

trained in the diagnosis of speech defects, agreed that the voice was wrong.

Another interesting survey is that made by Conradi.<sup>4</sup> Eighty-seven thousand, four hundred forty children in Kansas City, Milwaukee, Cleveland, Louisville, Albany, and Springfield were examined; of this number, over 2,000 were found to have serious voice defects.

In a survey of the school children of Madison, Wisconsin, last year,<sup>5</sup> Dr. Blanton, of the University of Wisconsin, found that nearly 150 children, out of a total of 4,862, had serious voice defects, chiefly stuttering, lisping, and indistinct speech. Working out his report very carefully, Dr. Blanton found that the greatest per cent of vocal defects was in the first grade. Six and four tenths per cent of the cases reported were in the kindergarten, 11.05% in the first grade, and then the per cent decreased until the eighth grades reported only 2.65%. The large number of speech defects found in the first grade, he concludes, is due to four causes:

1. The beginning of formal study.
2. The breaking of home associations.
3. Change in dentition.
4. Study of reading.

Another very significant fact brought out by this survey is that the children who were retarded, that is, two or more years behind their grades—and those who were diagnosed as mental defectives, were to a large extent the children with the most serious voice defects. If it is possible, from this observation, to make any connection between voice defects and mental defects, as would seem to be the case, the problem is a still more serious one.

The conclusions reached by Dr. Blanton through his investigations are as follows:

1. Five per cent more children than are recorded in most surveys are suffering from speech defects.
2. Speech defects relate very closely to feeble-minded and mentally defective children.

<sup>4</sup> Conradi, "Speech Development in the Child," *Pedagogical Seminar*, Vol. II, p. 365.

<sup>5</sup> Dr. Blanton, "A Survey of Speech Defects," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, December, 1916, p. 582.

3. Teachers should know anatomy and physiology of the speech mechanism, and something of abnormal psychology.

That this work is becoming very important is evidenced by the fact that within the last three years, most of the leading educational journals in the United States have discussed the problem very seriously, and have made various suggestions as to its solution.\*

Last year, the National Council of Teachers of English held a special conference on speech defects, under the leadership of Mrs. M. Scripture of New York, and the importance of the work was stressed in all the sections. The same National Council of Teachers of English has recently organized a National Speech League, the members of which are not in speech work. Such activity, outside the circle of professional teachers of speech, is bound to have a far-reaching effect.

Within recent years, many of our state universities have established courses in voice-training, and many summer school courses in oral English have been added to meet the demand for teachers who are trained to correct spoken English.

In certain states—California, New Jersey, Alabama, West Virginia, Kansas, and New York, especially—definite action has been taken, and the speech work there is becoming systematized.

The newly organized speech clinic of New York City, under the direction of Frederick Martin,<sup>7</sup> and the University of Wisconsin speech clinic, with Dr. Smiley Blanton in charge, are examples of the work now being done.

We find, then, that the field has been investigated, but the problem has not been solved in any sense; nor **will** it be solved until school boards and state boards of education can be brought to see the commercial loss involved in allowing speech defects to go untreated. The very definite relation between speech defects and the earning of a livelihood is something still to be learned. When school boards come to realize that the number of professions closed to lispers, stammerers, etc., is rapidly becoming

\**Educational Review, English Journal, Journal of Educational Psychology, School and Society, Pedagogical Seminar, Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking.*

<sup>7</sup> Director of Speech Improvement in the Public Schools of New York, and Director of the Speech Clinic in the College of the City of New York.

greater, then, and then only, will provision for the eradication of such defects be easier to obtain. The whole problem of voice defects in relation to economic efficiency is too great to discuss here, except in the case of the teaching profession, which will be discussed later.

Many suggestions have been made as to the method of solving the problem of speech correction. Prof. Albert Shower, of Kansas State Agricultural College, suggests that work in the form of illustrated lectures and practice lessons should be given in the grades to both teachers and pupils. This proposal has the objection of being too superficial—teachers must know more about defects than the children in order to be of any help to the latter.

This suggestion, made by an English teacher, is quite interesting: "Let the teacher counsel the pupil . . . as to the fact that his voice is harsh, or low, or thin, or whatever it may be. Let the teachers, as a body or through selected individuals, listen for the misuse of the speaking voice in the halls and on the playground. This, then, is the specific suggestion concerning voice-training which I would make."<sup>8</sup> This, of course, is better than nothing, but how is the child to benefit unless these same teachers are able to help him to *correct* his voice, in addition to pointing out what is wrong?

The most general suggestion and the one most generally in practice is to have a special voice teacher. This is a splendid idea, especially for those schools with plenty of money; but what about the thousands of smaller schools all over the country that cannot afford to have a special teacher? This suggestion, then, is hardly practicable enough.

All of these articles on the subject of voice improvement realize the fact that the school is the place to check speech defects. With this to start on, it should be comparatively easy to reach some conclusion. If the school is the place to begin, then logically, the teacher is the person to do the work, and the whole solution of the problem lies in the training of the teacher. If this is true, then obviously, the normal school is the institution to lead the reform. With the increasingly high standard of education required for the teaching profession, it will not be long

<sup>8</sup>Davis, "Vocal Training in the Secondary Schools," *English Journal*, April, 1916, p. 244.

before all of our teachers are graduates of either normal schools, universities, or special schools. Of these, the normal schools send out by far the greater share of those teachers who have charge of the children during the period when it is most important to check defects in speech. This fact is clear then: the normal schools send out the teachers who have the greatest need of a scientific knowledge of voice training.

*If every normal school student should be required to have a thorough scientific course in voice training before graduation, the problem of voice training could be solved.*

This would involve an expense to the state of one special teacher for every such school in the state, a very negligible expense compared to that of supplying one teacher for every public school in the state except to such states as Wisconsin, which is more plentiful with her normals than most other states.

Such a course would have to do two things: first, correct defects of the students' voices; second, give them practice in the diagnosis and correction of speech defects in children.

First of all, such a course should correct defects of the students themselves. A visit to almost any average-sized class in almost any normal school will reveal the fact that there are lisps, stutters, and shrill, harsh, or guttural voices in every class. A question or two will inevitably show that these people are planning to teach the following fall, or the next one at the very latest. Can you imagine a teacher of the eighth grade who lisps badly? A young man recently reported, after he had visited three grades in a near-by town, that he was astonished to find that one teacher lisped, the other two had "peacock voices," and not more than ten per cent of the eighty pupils had a pleasant voice. Surely such a situation should be remedied.

A normal school should be ashamed to send out teachers who lisp or stammer or have wretched voices of any kind. Not only that, but it is unfair to the student who is to be sent out.

A city superintendent was interviewing a student relative to a position only a few weeks ago. After a very short conversation, he asked, "Is that your natural voice?" "Why, yes," replied the student, very much taken aback at such a question. The interview was closed and the girl lost her chance of a good posi-

tion, because no teacher had ever told her she had a bad voice, and she was not required by the school to improve it before she graduated.

In order to pass the United States Civil Service examination for teachers, the applicant must pass a test in oral reading, and if the rigorous examination of nose and throat which follows shows any bad faults, the candidate is very likely to be dropped.

Many of the blanks sent out by county superintendents to applicants for schools have several questions about the voice, tonsils, adenoids, breathing, etc., which, if answered truthfully, would keep many a teacher from a good position.

Very often an examination of the nose and throat of a student will reveal conditions that cause many other troubles beside a bad voice. For instance, the report on one girl sent to a specialist for nose and throat examination showed the following condition:

Throat history: has had attacks of sore throat.

Aural history: Periodic attacks of deafness which usually follow a cold.

Naso-pharynx: adenoid tissue.

Eustachian tubes: surrounded by adenoid tissue.

Tonsils: fossa filled with tissue even to the pillars.

Posterior Pillar: not adherent to tonsils.

Anterior Pillar: not adherent to tonsils.

Post-nasal space: filled with mucous.

Thyroid: normal.

Is it any wonder that this girl had a bad voice, poor scholarship, and poor health?

The diagnosis of another girl showed:

Septum: deviated to the left, leaving left nasal passage obstructed and narrow.

High dental arch. Upper front incisor teeth protrude. Short upper lip.

Mouth breather.

Small goiter present.

This report and numerous others, very similar, establish a close relation between a poor voice, poor health, and weak scholarship. The September number of the *Medical Record* publishes an article

by Dr. Ira S. Wile, a member of the New York City board of education, on "The Economic Value of Speech Correction," in which he says, "It is patent that the average sufferer from a speech defect is deprived of his fullest opportunities of education and self-expression. The majority of speech defects are combined with defects of vision, hearing, and muscular coordination, or cerebral development."

If such defects could be corrected at the very beginning of school life, the effect on voice, mentality, and health would be vastly greater than the effects of such correction at the age of twenty or twenty-five. Dr. Smiley Blanton says, "Teachers trained for this work can accomplish a great deal of good in our schools and can save many children from life-long suffering and failure."<sup>9</sup>

Therefore, it is of great importance that the teachers in the grades—the lower grades particularly—should be able to diagnose speech defects and correct them, or have them corrected by a physician.

This, then, is the second aim of such a course as the one advocated—to train students in the detection and correction of speech defects. With a training school in connection with every normal school and the public schools willing and anxious to co-operate, as they usually are, there is a splendid chance for observation and plenty of opportunity for individual work with children. Such common troubles as lisping, stammering, harshness, nasality, indistinct speech, high pitch, and monotony can be found in almost every grade; chiefly, however, in the lower grades. This is another reason why the normal school is the logical place to do this work—theory can be put at once into practice, under the careful supervision of the voice teacher.

The voice work in the normal school should be correlated with the work of the physical education department. The voice teacher should have on file a record of the physical examination of the student, his class record, and the record of the nose and throat examination made by a specialist, if the teacher has not a medical degree, together with a history of the person as nearly as it can be ascertained. Very often a bad voice is directly due to

<sup>9</sup> Dr. Blanton, "The University of Wisconsin Speech Clinic," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, May, 1916, p. 260.



the environment of the individual. A man with a tense, harsh voice said that he realized that his voice was becoming worse, but he had no idea what the trouble was. A very informal conversation with him brought out the fact that for the last few years he had been living in the same house with a man he hated. They never quarrelled, but their relations were always strained, and the young man fell into the habit of gritting his teeth to keep from saying unpleasant things. This practice made his jaw tense and his voice began to lose its freedom and flexibility. This man has now moved from that house; he is cheerful and happy again, and before long, his voice is bound to show the change.

A girl who has a very harsh, flat voice said she knew it was due to a teacher she had in the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades. This teacher had very poor discipline, and the room was always in a turmoil. She was partially deaf, so that the children, when they recited, had to almost shout to make her hear above the noise in the room. This strain for three years was more than her voice could stand, and she is now paying the penalty.

Such situations show that beside the anatomy and physiology of speech mechanism, the teacher must also have a knowledge of psychology.

Such teachers, at the head of voice clinics in every normal school in the country, could do a great deal toward solving the present voice problem; for the next generation of teachers would be equipped to handle the next generation of school children, and before many generations have passed, the American voice would not be characterized by its badness.

## THE AUDIENCE AS THE JURY

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N UMEROUS writers on debating have proposed ways and means for reforming the usual system of judging intercollegiate debate, but it seems to the writer there is still field for further consideration. One of the latest suggestions was that there be no decision at all; and inquiry shows that several debates of the season just closed have been thus conducted. Another suggestion was that one expert and impartial judge make the decision by his single vote. Considerable discussion has centered too in the question of whether intercollegiate debating was to be considered a "game." Now it seems to the present writer that completely eliminating a decision takes away altogether too much interest which will naturally attach to the "game" idea, and that the element of rivalry is too strong and vital in real public speaking to warrant such elimination. (The second suggestion, that of having a single expert judge, does not, however helpful in other respects, eliminate the partisanship which would seem far more fitting to athletic than to intellectual contests.) Furthermore, it does not secure what all public speaking should secure, the largest possible contact with the public. Right here is where the present article desires to suggest further possibilities. The contention of the article is that college audiences should function as nearly as possible as audiences in the world at large; that there should be the largest possible influence of and appeal to the audience; that we cannot otherwise expect the greatest good either to the audience or to the speakers; that to secure these ends the audience must have a part in the "game"

The inception of this idea came just after the Denver-Wyoming debate last winter. Professor Kingsley of Denver had suggested our use of the no decision method in connection with a suggestion first made, I believe, by Mr. Westfall, of Colorado Agricultural College: that only outside teams debate at any institution. The idea of the last suggestion was to have neutral ground and thus put both teams upon an even basis. In a triangular league, for instance, the teams for institutions *A*, *B*, *C*,

would all debate away from home: the affirmative from *A* with the negative team of *B*, at institution *C*; affirmative *B* with negative *C* at *A*; and affirmative *C* with negative *A* at *B*. The thought instantly occurred to me, "Why, if we have a neutral audience, shall we not make the audience the jury?" The idea grew into more definite form as we talked it over that evening and the next day, with the result that the University of Wyoming later on proposed such a system for use in the triangular league next year. Of four different coaches to whom it has been proposed, two expressed themselves very favorably and the other two feared there would be a lessening of local interest because of no local team on hand to be supported. The inference must be that some coaches still feel there must be the spirit of partisanship in order to get out a crowd. Inasmuch as the system has never been tried out, this may be the case. But there are two things to be said about it: first as already intimated, such a spirit does not make for good judgment; and secondly it is very possible that, if the audience is given a natural and interesting part, a much greater interest may be developed than the present system may afford even at its best.

In further explanation of the plan, it should be noticed that there will be not merely the neutral audience but the neutral coach or coaches of debating, thus furnishing at once and without any cost, the desirable element of expert judgment. Further than that, there will be neutral public speaking classes, which may be better posted (I hesitate to say will be) than the general audience. Thinking over the situation—entirely changed it must be observed by allowing no home team—it appeared well to retain the old three-vote system but to arrange it (after on a basis of a vote from each group.) Of course the decision might be rendered on the basis of a majority vote by the audience as a single group; but the objection to this is in the lack of distinction of significance of the votes. On the three-group basis the audience might vote upon the right and wrong of the question; the public speaking class or classes upon the logic of argument as presented; and the coaches upon the effectiveness of delivery.

For the first group we shall probably have to wrench our traditions considerably to see the value of their voting upon the

question) rather than upon the debate. The vote of a jury or of an executive committee or of a city council to whom a student might speak, when college days are over, would not depend directly on what they thought of his ability as a speaker. On the other hand their vote must go to whichever side they think is right. To be sure relative ability will count; but it will be sufficient if included in the one vote as to what they think of the *question* at the end of the discussion. If any individual has his opinion changed by the debate, it is the triumph for the side to which he is drawn. This is entirely natural in real life. Just as natural, too, is the retention of old opinion in spite of possibly better arguments against it. Under the old three-man system we must, of course, rule out everything but a consideration of how the argument is handled by the respective sides. It will be seen, however, that under the present suggestion there is naturalness and justice in allowing for a vote on the merits of the *question*. It is the vote upon the merits of the question that counts in the "game" of real life. One trouble with the prevailing system is that this very necessary element is given no place in the college "game." It seems to me that there is no objection to the conception of public speaking as a "game," if only we make it natural enough.

The second group, the public speaking classes, should be interested in the balancing of the issues. The attendance of this group may be made part of the class work in public speaking and under this condition I think there will be no question whatever about their interest. I have found that some of the most interesting recitations were those based on debates just given or soon to come. Previous discussions and analysis of the issues involved would make them keen on the subject of logical argument and would give a very practical basis of application. Again as in the case of the audience (that is, the rest of the audience) an important group is given a definite part to play. It seems to me that there is an immense loss to our public speaking classes if they cannot thus apply the principles of the class outside of the classroom. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon this as a larger, naturalistic basis for the public speaking classes. The majority vote of this group would, of course, constitute the second of the three votes which are to decide the debate.

The third group should probably constitute three or five of the local faculty. All of these need not be of the public speaking department inasmuch as those of other departments have frequently given careful attention to the theory of public speaking. On every faculty, indeed, there are many who have had college courses in this work. Moreover, every faculty has members from other departments that can give much aid in criticism of the local teams; and this plan of having them take part in the decision between visiting teams works very nicely in connection. In other words, there should be encouragement to broadening the contact of the debaters with their own faculty, and to broadening the contact of their faculty with debating activities. Composite coaching should have a much higher place than is usual at present; and composite judgments on intercollegiate debates will tend, I think, to promote faculty interest.

It will have been observed by now how narrow is the public contact under the old system of judging, compared to what is possible even in college debating. (The only group that the above suggestion would seem to omit is that of the general public outside of college; but this too can be included in the general audience and sometimes even in the committee of experts.) It seems to me worthy our most serious consideration, whether we are justified in omitting any of the natural elements. (I have high respect for the single-judge decision when that comes from an expert; and especially if it makes analysis of the different phases in which sometimes one team and sometimes the other may be superior.) But it has not, I repeat, anything more than the single-judgment basis, and I believe we can get at once a consideration of these different phases and a consideration from many minds.)

It may, of course, be argued that this system would be a little complex, and yet probably not as complex as where the single judge would be given an hour to compile his review and summary. This, I think, was the plan recently suggested in this journal. Again it would seem no more complex than the decision of the judge who has to figure over his complicated table including what he feels to be all the necessary phases of a debate. Who has not known the suspense and sometimes the weariness of waiting for an undecided judge or an overttechnical judge to

make up his decision? One or two have suggested to me that it might be a little cumbersome in getting the vote of each of the three groups. I see no reason why with teams of three men each the teams themselves might not be divided into three committees each including one of each team, each committee to receive the vote of each group. But whatever be the method of receiving the vote, we must remember that there is but to determine the majority of each of three groups and furthermore, that the average college audience under the present system is lamentably small.

We may very well give over "rooting" to football, for rooting is notoriously non-intellectual. On the other hand, we may well strive to secure greater mental activity from our debate audiences. If those audiences *must* be small, why small let them be. Not that we love college spirit less, but intellectual activity more. Who has not heard some "collegian" say, "Well we won, didn't we? That's fine! Great work!" Such a congratulation *a la football*, makes the assumption that both know the verdict to have been just right. But in how many cases do these collegians have any adequate basis of *personal* judgment? I think the point of this is obvious. (The partisan audience is altogether too much delighted over a victory or too much cast down by a defeat.) The matter of winning weighs all too heavily to allow consideration of the argument. The matter of winning is played up for the local audience and it is the one and only thing considered; a successful season, another scalp, etc. Under the ordinary system, they are not required and they are not even encouraged to consider the argument proper. It seems to me, therefore, that the objections against not having a home team, make the greatest possible reasons why we *should have* only neutral teams. I have discussed this question for nearly half a year with a good many people and I am more and more inclined to the view that the interest and determination of the several faculties can make it a distinct success. Certainly it offers interesting possibilities of a more scientific, or at least a more natural, basis of judgment. The very suggestion of complexity, if that be raised, is itself one of the most natural comparisons to life.

(It may be of interest to quote several of the written opinions that have come to me.)

"The training such a plan would afford to students of public speaking would no doubt be a valuable factor."

"I should like to have the vote of the whole audience decide the debate. The effect produced by the speakers upon the audience could best be ascertained in this way."

"I have for several years been interested in such a plan because it seems to me to get back to fundamental motives. In actually working it out, there will be many details that may not easily be controlled, for example, the greater interests of the students in one school than in the other. Nevertheless, it is an experiment that will be tried." (Note that the general student vote would count but one in three even if there were greater interests in one of the schools represented.)

"In my opinion, this proposed plan is a great improvement. I should like to suggest that the three coaches in the league outline the more important rules that ought to govern the technic of debating. These rules should be furnished at least to the group of 'specialists,' which group, I think, should not be less than three."

Finally, the essential claim for the plan, it must now be seen, is that it gets back to "fundamental motives." In all the discussion upon it that claim has never been attacked. Unless it is not true that it offers greater possibilities in natural and effective debating, it would seem worthy of serious consideration by other institutions; for if everyone has his natural part, the "game" element becomes not a "counterfeit presentment," but the real thing."

## PSYCHOLOGICAL PARALLELISMS BETWEEN SPEECH DISORDER AND ORAL ENGLISH<sup>1</sup>

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**B**Y PSYCHOLOGICAL parallelisms between speech disorder and oral English, I mean vague correlations between conditions that exist in one and those which are found in analogous form, in the other.

In this paper I wish to compare psychological content, the vague mental background of speech, in a word, the mentation above our external, oral utterances, with that utterance itself.

In order to discover a few characteristics of speech disorder that have their counterparts or analogous characteristics in oral English, let us consider for a few moments some cases of speech disorder and analyze their mental background enough to catch the size of its content, and then let us compare this result with some of the psychological contents found in cases where speech is supposed to be above the pathological, where it is supposed to rank as normal, and yet, where there are at the same time numerous individual varieties. In a word, let us compare the psychological content of a speech disorder with the psychological content of normal speech and see if there are any parallelisms.

We all know that, outside of the field of speech, individuality (and its varieties) externalizes itself in various forms. Take, for example, the field of disease. The whole clinical picture of any given disease is necessarily modified by the dominating individuality of a person behind that disease. In other walks of life it is recognized that the individual type plays a leading rôle everywhere. In most undertakings, in fact, one is inclined to look for the individual to fit the place rather than to select some vague, generalized personality and mould it into the place. In dramatic performances we choose the already formed individual fitted to take a certain part rather than picking out

<sup>1</sup>Read in the Harvard Union, Cambridge, Mass., April 7, 1916, at the Third Annual Meeting of the New England Oral English and Public Speaking Conference.



individuals indiscriminately and moulding them into the individuality of the part. As we look now into some of the rarer forms of speech defect, I think we shall find persisting this same principle of dominating individuality.

The external speech of the idiot may consist in a grunt or in a few words which he has taken years to learn, or there may be the utterance of a few short and simple sentences. The psychological background or mental content above this sort of utterance is found to be marked by emptiness, lack of mentation, undevelopment, incomplete sensory intake, slight—if any—proper interpretation, often no mental digestive processes, and little, if any, motor control exerted over the output. The mental act behind idiotic utterance consists in a quick speech reflex along a well-trodden line, with as little mentation as one can imagine. Pathologic study shows deficiency in the structure of the brain and that therefore the nerve foundation requisite to utterance is lacking.

The speech of the imbecile is a little better. It is usually long delayed in starting, and at the time of completion may consist, at best, of pretty perfect utterance of short sounds, both vowels and consonants, coupled usually with the ability to utter a few of almost any monosyllabic words. But the great lack in the utterance of the imbecile consists in an inability to combine words. For example, you ask him to say word by word "the cat ran down the cellar stairs" and he can say it, but ask him to say that whole phrase and he misses it. The mentation of the imbecile consists in a small amount of sensory intake, some vague stabs at interpretation of that intake which are often sufficient to guide him in some of his ordinary doings. Over this there is a very slight amount of collaboration and some little control of the motor output. The mental act in cases of imbecility consists in a fairly characteristic reflex speech that shows a little mentation but fails, and constantly fails, in combinations of ideas and phrase expression. The brain here has more structure than idiocy, and yet it provides only a faulty foundation for the fulfilment of its expected function.

Another feature common to both of these speech disorders is this: There is a slight possibility of development in each case,

but the general picture—the whole external appearance in each condition—the show, remains practically static and unchanged. There is a fairly stable psychological content and a pretty uniform vocal externalization of that content. We also notice a fact which is so closely correlated here as to deserve mention, the fact that the brain structure, on large lines, shows corresponding variations.

We turn now to the moron. The moron is a high-grade mental defective. He is so high, sometimes, that he fails of detection; he is often difficult to diagnose without long experience in making mental measurements, and he often passes muster where he should not have passed. The speech disorder in the moron consists in the lack of a high degree of power to combine utterances. Individual sounds are correct, any and all words may be uttered, and usually he can frame short or even pretty long sentences, but when the moron is put up against complicated combinations, subtle connotations, the need to make intricate mental analyses or to follow intricate ramifications of thought, there is utter failure. The mind appears like a child's mind, as if the individual had stopped mental growth at fifteen, while the body had gone on developing for years. The psychological content of various individual morons shows a pretty complete and elaborate sense intake, fairly full interpretation of such sensorial data, simple forms of mental collaboration, and fairly full control of motor output. The lack, in a word, consists in the absence of complicated collaboration processes.

One moron may show his deficiency in relation to playmates and play with those that are younger; another may show it in another expression of mental processes such as study. The brain in the moron exhibits an inherited variation in structure.

Thus we have shown in a general way that oral utterance is parallel to psychological content and that it is parallel to brain condition.

A review of these conditions shows certain elements or phases of the situation that are constant and are never reversed. For example, in the idiot we never find the power of collaboration or the utterance of complicated sentences that we have in the normal individual or even that which we have in the moron. In

the imbecile we have a half-way house to normal psychological content and vocal externalizations. This form is always higher than the idiot and never as high as the typical moron. In the moron itself, we always find the basis of sensorial content, interpretative ability, with slight collaborative processes, but we never find those marked deficiencies of the idiot or the imbecile.

We have here types of speech disorder as externalization of types of psychological content with a structural foundation in brain abnormality, and these are pretty constant variables. When the speech output enlarges the psychological content enlarges, and the brain structure becomes more normal.

One might reverse this order and say that the individuality of the brain type allows more amplified development of the psychological content, and that this, in turn, naturally permits a more complete vocal output. Within the class these types are constant. They never change, one to the other. They never revolve very much. They are susceptible of some slight improvement, but the type is constant.

If you have caught my meaning, we have here, then, a clear picture which I want to use in asking a question and in stimulating discussion.

Have we enough evidence to take this point over into what we call the normal sphere of speech and make the same correlation? Are we justified in saying that normal brains necessitate normal psychological content and normal oral content? Can we say, as we hear men talk, that their oral variety depends on a psychological variety, and this on a cortical brain variety? A side question might also be asked: If the brain variety comes from heredity—and we can be sure that brain heredity enters here—are we then to breed for voices, minds, and brains and thus indirectly, are we to assume a sort of fatalism here, a sort of fixed, stable, inflexible nature, educable in part, but which when training is forced, presents a stony resistance beyond which we fail to educate? Again, are we orally what we are because we are psychologically what we are, and this because we are anatomically what we are, and does each type, therefore, stand a unit, unique, unchangeable, yet slightly elastic?

Picking the individual for the dramatic part was mentioned above as a necessity. The study of speech disorder and the psychological background in mental defectives shows us that there is a pretty constant type that is limited to classes, immovable and slightly educable. Can we say this same thing about all normal mentalities as we meet them in the world? Can we say that each man represents a type of speech, psychic content, and brain basis, and must we assume that he is in his intellectual background pretty much the same inflexible thing, perhaps slightly variable, a little elastic, somewhat amenable to education, evolution, and change, but after all a set, invariable, fatalistic entity belonging to a stable type? This query I open for your decision in the discussion.

*Summary:* A study of speech defect in the varying degrees of psychological content, with corresponding change of brain background shows that the psychological content corresponds to the amount of oral output.

A study of a variety of types of speech defect shows that the output varies somewhat according to the type within the class.

Brain structure, psychological content, and oral output thus run pretty constantly parallel between different classes of mental defectives. This shows that in the background we have a pretty firm establishment of a mental type with which we must deal.

To enliven the discussion, I will carry my conclusion to its end, and say that in what we term the normal individual structure, psychological content and oral output therefore run vaguely parallel in normal types and are only partially educable, changeable, variable, but are mostly fixed, fatalistic, and firm.

## SPOKEN ENGLISH 1-1 AT SMITH COLLEGE

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CLARA B. WILLIAMS

Smith College

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I HAVE read with great interest the description of the fundamental courses at the three universities which appeared in the April number and I was gratified to see how much we have in common and how nearly consonant some of our ideas are.

I believe, though the methods of approach may vary, the fundamentals of the subject are the same, and whether applied to a class of men or of women only the usual adjustment to the needs of the special class should be made.

I have taught men, and, although my experience has been confined to professional men, lawyers and preachers, I am sure if I were teaching undergraduate men I would teach them as I do our girls. If I were teaching in a coeducational institution I believe nothing would induce me to put the men and women into separate classes—not even the men themselves.

At Smith College, Spoken English is not required, it is entirely elective through the four years, and the same credit is given it that is accorded to any other college subject.

All students on entering college confer with members of the Spoken English department and if they are found to have especially bad voices or extreme speech defects or peculiarities they are strongly advised, though not forced, to take the fundamental course. Usually we have about five hundred students entering. Of these probably one-third are advised to take the course and generally about half of those advised do so. A list of these students is kept and they are given special attention by instructors outside of regular class work for the correction of their specific troubles. By far the larger number taking the course do it freely and of their own election.

Many students taking course 1-1 have a well-defined purpose: some of them intend to teach; some want to act, or think they do; some are interested in a line of work that will necessitate their speaking in public; some are interested in the interpretation of literature; some desire it for general culture; and some have obvious "hidden" motives.

Although we have courses in the three upper years in all phases of the subject, public speaking and debate, interpretation and acting, phonetics, etc., course 1-1 is fundamental to and prerequisite to them all.

Whatever the form of the thought, if it is to be given vocal expression, it must be revealed through the voice and body, therefore, the preparation for the expression of all forms of thought is essentially the same.

Whatever one's ultimate purpose may be—whether teaching, acting, becoming a public speaker, or merely to make oneself as efficient as possible for meeting the ordinary demands of life—the preparation is essentially the same.

I think it is generally agreed that before specialization there should be a good general foundation.

Spoken English 1-1 is described in the catalogue, "Fundamental Course in Vocal Expression, open to Freshmen and Sophomores; two hours through the year."

In this college our courses are graded 1, 2, 3, and 4—the first grade being for freshmen and sophomores, the second for sophomores and juniors, the third for juniors and seniors, and the fourth for seniors and graduate students. The first numeral, therefore, indicates the grade, the second, the number of the course.

We have a grade three fundamental course for juniors and seniors, three hours through the year, so we do not now have the problem of trying to adapt one course to all classes of students.

From what has been stated above it will be seen that the objects of the fundamental course must be general: to remove fear and self-consciousness; correct faults of voice, speech, and hearing; enable them to speak and think at the same time; in brief, to prepare them for the greatest possible personal development by removing interferences and stimulating normal processes.

The method of approach depends on the instructor and the special needs of the students.

We have usually five or six instructors giving this course and I am sure no two of them would proceed in the same way. This is not only unnecessary and undesirable but impossible.

There is, however, always a uniformity of purpose and an agreement on certain fundamental principles so that the results achieved are more or less the same and students are ready to go on into other courses with equal preparation.

The first step is to remove fear and self-consciousness and learn something of the students' personal needs.

The tact and penetration of the instructor will have to guide her in this.

Usually I think there is little trouble in creating a friendly atmosphere, making them all feel free to talk informally. We attempt to keep the sections rather small, not more than fifteen in a division, which helps in establishing an informal relation between the students.

Sometimes, with an excessively timid student, it will be necessary to adopt various expedients to lead her out and make her venture to express herself, but after she has accomplished the difficult feat once, she is usually exhilarated by it and subsequent efforts are increasingly successful.

I have seen students who had never had the courage to express themselves and had consequently been overlooked and taken for granted till self-depreciation had almost extinguished them, suddenly realize that they were persons like other people and could talk and be listened to. Their joy in realizing this was at once so satisfying and so pathetic that it did more to make me realize the great spiritual opportunities for the teacher of expression than any other thing.

While the students are thus being induced to talk informally or tell stories or read, the instructor is studying them trying to discover their faults and weaknesses and searching for the cause.

These faults and weaknesses may be physical or psychological, that is they may be due to some actual physical obstruction or weakness or they may be due entirely to some mental cause.

It is difficult to tell because these classes overlap, often what appears to be a psychological weakness entirely disappearing when some physical cause is removed, or what seems to be a purely physical trouble vanishes when a mental stimulus is applied.

It is for this reason that the questions of correcting faulty voices and developing weak ones are too complicated for the unskilled person to answer.

Only the inexperienced claim to be able to diagnose these troubles quickly and accurately and I have observed that inexperienced and untrained teachers give more exercises, generally, than teachers of longer experience and broader training.

I have known people to take certain classified exercises which they have found described in some book and give them to large groups of students, regardless of the individual differences and needs of the students and apparently totally oblivious to the fact that though two students may seem to have exactly the same fault, the causes may be wholly different, and what may not hurt one may distinctly do damage to the other. Just because these exercises are labelled "For the Cure of This" or "For the Development of That," some people grasp at them exactly as though they were patent medicines put upon the market, with the same kind of guarantee. Students are told to practice these exercises, but happily, the wholesome dislike on the part of most students for the routine and mechanical often saves them from the real harm that might come to them if they were more virtuous and diligent in the performance of the tasks assigned them.

The wise teacher will generally not tell students immediately of their faults but will encourage them and stimulate and develop the positive side, leading them into a consciousness of their weaknesses and awakening a desire for development.

Until a student is conscious of her needs and is ready and eager to coöperate with the instructor by intelligently and faithfully practicing exercises, I think exercises are worse than futile.

Therefore, except in special cases, we do not immediately begin giving students exercises.

It may be some weeks or it may be a whole semester before any real exercises are given. Before this, the instructor has probably talked with them about breathing and has begun the work of establishing normal conditions for voice.

During these first weeks the students are reading, talking, telling stories.



It is usually suggested that they choose simpler forms of literature, lyric and narrative poetry, short stories, etc. The instructor must lead them to see the possibilities of "Self-Expression" as a subject for college study.

There are no collections of "Choice Readings" or "Prize Pieces" on our shelves and though at first some of them deplore the absence of these they soon get used to foraging for their own food.

By their choice of literature they reveal their tastes and their literary background.

The instructor points out the advantages of good literature for vocal expression.

They take a new interest in literature, they acquire a certain pride in making the acquaintance of new authors.

They learn to listen to each other and to observe certain differences.

They become interested in the question of why one student holds attention and another fails to.

They begin to follow the processes of the mind as revealed through the voice—they see the relation between thinking and speaking.

It becomes evident to them, that the more clearly a student thinks the more clearly she speaks, often the stimulation of her mental activity causing such a corresponding response in the speech organs that bad speech habits are corrected. On the other hand they see that a student whose thinking is strong and whose earnestness is compelling may be greatly handicapped by a speech defect or a fault of voice which could not be eradicated without special treatment.

They are led to see that undeniable changes take place in the voice when the imagination is awakened—and they become convinced of the value of reading poetry as a means of developing the voice.

They come to realize that a small weak voice is inadequate for the expression of a big thought or a deep emotion that the "modest violet" must relinquish her prejudices for the "sweetly feminine" voice or else limit her expression to infinitesimal thoughts.

They learn to despise affectation and honor sincerity.

They soon turn the searchlight of inquiry upon themselves; they listen to themselves and they begin to realize their own inadequacy and to become conscious of their own needs.

They are now ready to take an intelligent interest in the technical side and are able to get some advantage from exercises.

Preceding all exercises, I think right conditions of breathing and the relaxation of the muscles of the throat should be established.

This is what Dr. Curry calls the "coördination of the throat and the diaphragm."

It is remarkable that although this seems so simple, it is often very hard to do. Until a student who has constricted throat muscles and a stiff tongue and lower jaw once gets the sense of the relaxation of these, simultaneously with the taking of the breath preparatory to speaking or producing tone, I think she will be very liable to increase the constriction. Dr. Curry's "nature" methods of inducing this condition by yawning, exclamations of surprise, etc., are excellent.

When this fundamental condition has been established the instructor will proceed to give whatever exercises she thinks best. I cannot go into the detailed account of exercises in such a paper as this; only those that would be helpful to all would be given in class; exercises for training the ear, developing strength, range, and flexibility, etc.

Those students who have specific defects are given individual attention or treated in small groups and they are given appointments for supervised practice; these students have been mentioned above, as specially advised to take the course. This special work is done in addition to the regular class work. Dr. Curry's *Foundations of Expression* is used in this course—probably not more than eight or ten chapters would be discussed in the class—this also would be at the discretion of the instructor, but the general plan and principles of this book are used as a basis for the course.

It is unnecessary for me to say that I am heartily in sympathy with the ideals expressed by Miss Bertha Forbes Herring in the April number; and if all students came to us with the kind of preparation she advocates, Spoken English 1-2 would become Spoken English 1-1 at Smith College.

## FACULTY JUDGING

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**T**O WHAT extent should teachers of public speaking judge their local contests in oratory and debate? This is the question I wish to discuss under the heading "faculty judging."

(The question of judging contests is one of importance to every teacher of public speaking, for it influences his faith in contests, his spirit in classroom work, and the tone of public speaking in the school.) Teachers and students cannot be long dissatisfied with the judging in contests without losing their heart in such contests and hence much of their interest in the more fundamental aims of departments of public speaking. In extreme cases they may feel that contests are not worth while, in others, that judges should be eliminated; but the majority have sought for better judgment. This search has led some to believe that public speaking contests should be judged by public speaking teachers. As a result many debates are now judged by teachers of public speaking or by men trained in intercollegiate contests, and in the last meeting of the Northern Oratorical League the faculty representatives from the seven colleges judged the contest, each man voting on all speakers except his own.)

It is not, however, "faculty judging" in intercollegiate contests that I wish to discuss, but in local contests. I believe that as a general principle, all home contests leading to interscholastic contests should be judged by the members of the department of Public Speaking, or where such a department is not large enough, by judges selected by and acting with the members of this department.) This is what I have in mind when I use the term "faculty judging." I do not mean that the teacher or teachers of public speaking should pick students to represent their school *without a formal contest*. Formal contests should by all means be held, but the teachers of public speaking should be entirely responsible for the judgment rendered.

The value of contests is recognized. While some may complain that the same spontaneity and force that is found in ex-

perienced speakers is not always present in academic contests, and may regret that contests are contests and not "actual" occasions, yet the fact remains that these contests stimulate students to develop their speech possibilities, and do much to strengthen the interest of the student body in the work of public speaking.

The fundamental purpose of these contests is to develop speech power, and not to maintain an intercollegiate sport. In athletic contests the main purpose is to provide recreation and advertising, but in oratorical contests and debates the main purpose is to educate. The contest is a means of drawing out the public speaking possibilities of students. In fact many of the most important educative values of courses in public speaking are involved in speaking contests.

If this be so, then it is evident that such contests belong to the department of Public Speaking rather than to that of Rhetoric, Economics, or History; that the responsibility for the success of these contests, for their proper conduct and the careful training of participants, should rest upon the teachers of public speaking, and should be regarded by them as part of their opportunity to encourage and develop better public speaking. Speaking contests should not belong primarily to the school as a whole, or to any organization of students in debating societies or oratorical associations, but to that department of academic work whose special purpose is to educate students in the various branches of public speaking. Where such a department does not exist, then the debating societies, or the teacher of English or History or Mathematics, or any individual or organization that realizes the value of public speaking contests may well take them in hand, and pray for the time when a department of public speaking with a teacher hired primarily for the work may be established.

The relation between departments of Public Speaking and speaking contests has always been close. In some cases departments have sprung from the demands created by contests, in many cases contests have been fostered by teachers of public speaking, but the ultimate goal of contests and teachers is the same—the development of better speech habits and greater speech power. Contests, then, logically belong to departments of Public Speaking as phases of education in the speech arts.

But should the responsibility for judging these contests rest entirely with the department of Public Speaking? Should the teachers exercise a controlling influence in the judgment rendered?

In considering this question certain facts should be understood. First, judging in a contest is a form of grading, an attempt to classify contestants according to their excellence. Any process of grading may be either easy or difficult. If a single factor is involved and a mechanical standard of measurement exists the grading is relatively easy. For example, peaches of a single variety are commonly graded for market according to size. There are big peaches, middle-sized peaches, and little peaches, and a simple machine that will measure size will grade peaches. But, when several factors are involved and the standard of grading is a personal one, judging becomes more complicated and difficult.

Again, it is easy to detect wide differences—the very large and the very small, the exceptionally good and the very poor; but narrow differences, even when a single factor is involved, are difficult to determine with certainty. For example, most students can tell whether one note is higher or lower than another when the interval is an octave, but many cannot tell when the interval is only a semitone. Wherever narrow differences and many factors are involved, and where the standard of measurement is subject to personal taste, judging becomes difficult and variable.

It is perfectly evident that in contests in oratory and debating many factors present themselves for measurement and grading. These are not of the same importance to all judges, and are not determined by a fixed mechanical standard. When we stop to think of just a few of the more general factors involved in public speaking, we realize how complex the process of grading is. There is stage presence—position of feet, poise of body, tilt of head, even dress; there are movements of the body—feet, arms, head, face, eyes; there is the voice with its pronunciation, distinctness, quality, modulation, rate, rhythm, etc.; there are the general psychological aspects of the speaker's relation to his audience—self-mastery, directness, sympathy, intimacy, etc.; there is the thought—its substance, logical arrangement, imagi-

native vitality, and the diction and style of its expression. Any one of these factors may appear of great or little importance, and all are subject to personal standards of measurement.

With these complex elements entering into the conclusions of judges, it is evident that uniformity of opinion cannot be expected, and that criticisms of judgment are inevitable. These criticisms come from two main sources: first, from the losers of the contest and their friends, and second, from disinterested differences of opinion. Both of these sources of criticism will continue to exist under any system of judging.

Another fact concerning judging is this: a trained judge is regarded in all walks of life as better than an untrained one. A trained judge is apt to recognize and weigh carefully a larger number of factors than an untrained one. In selecting a white wyandotte rooster for breeding an untrained judge will commonly choose the largest bird. He judges chickens by the market value, and bigness is all he can see. But the trained judge considers many points. So in judging an oratorical contest the untrained judge often selects the speaker with the loudest voice, or the longest gestures, or the most ornate style, or with a hobby like his own. The trained judge is much less apt to base his decision on a single factor.

There are some who will admit that a trained judge is best for most things, but not for speaking contests. They hold that speakers in "actual" life must be judged by their audiences and hence in contests should be judged by men and women who have not studied the art of speaking except as accidental auditors. They hold that the market value of the chicken is the best standard for improving the breed; that students will not have trained teachers of speech arts to judge them out of school, and hence should not have them in. The fallacies involved in this conclusion I shall leave for the reader to state for himself. But it seems reasonable to believe that if the function of contests and of departments of Public Speaking is to develop better standards of public speaking, the ones who should be directly responsible for the standards encouraged by the judgment in public speaking contests should be the teachers of public speaking. The only possible answer to this is that the standards of teachers of public speaking

are more artificial and less desirable than the standards of all sorts of men who are merely individuals out of which audiences are made. This charge of artificiality impeaches the teachers and departments of Public Speaking, and must be denied as a delusion.

But are teachers of public speaking the best trained judges? Are they not over trained? Do they not know too much? When a student loses a contest he sometimes thinks so, but common sense tells us that this objection to "faculty judging" has little real value. Common sense tells us that a man who has made a special study of public speaking is better trained than the man who has just observed the phenomenon, and if the trained judge is the best judge, the charge of incompetency cannot be sustained against teachers of public speaking.

A more serious objection to "faculty judging" is the charge of favoritism. It is thought that teachers will have favorites in their classes or fraternities, or will vote for old winners or upper-classmen, or will favor students who are taking courses in their departments. This charge is in a sense true, but in a larger sense false. It is true that teachers form favorable and unfavorable opinions of the speaking possibilities of students under their instruction. They have a chance to study students from week to week and from contest to contest, and the impressions thus gained enter into their decisions as judges of contests. This is a good thing. It tests the wearing qualities of contestants, and gives the judge time to consider more carefully the sources of their power or weakness. It gives the judge a better chance to know the character and personal traits of the contestants. The favoritism that comes from knowledge is on the whole beneficial.

If, however, there are teachers of public speaking so blind to the interests of their profession as to allow fraternity and social connections to outweigh their honest judgment, then even the selection of judges by such teachers is dangerous. Such favoritism should disqualify teachers from any part in the development of the speech possibility of students.

These objections to "faculty judging"—artificiality, incompetency and favoritism—come mostly from students disgruntled by failure to win, and must be expected. They are analogous to

the complaints of students who get lower marks in their class work than they want. They can either be accepted, and their dangerous tendencies nullified by frankness, fairness, and a spirit of helpfulness toward all contestants, or they may be avoided by a firm refusal to judge.

From the point of view of the teacher "faculty judging" has some features that may make us wish to avoid it. It opens us to the criticisms others might make. Our judgment may be questioned and our integrity impugned. Our harmonious relations with our fellow-teachers may be disturbed. We may be called upon to face a real conflict between our judgment and our friendship; between our desire to maintain our standards and the reputation of our school and our impulse to favor friends. One of our alibis for failure to win from other schools will be removed—we can no longer claim that our representatives were selected by incompetent judges. But in spite of these possibilities of personal discomfort our responsibility toward the cause of education in the speech arts makes it imperative for us to take a leading part in speaking contests—in controlling them, in advising contestants and in judging contests, and in instructing and training the winners for higher contests.

The day is past when we can stand aside from these contests and with a half apologetic spirit let them go on. If properly organized, directed, and encouraged they are of great educational value. High-grade judging is vital to their success. To the teachers of public speaking belongs the responsibility for such judging. Whether we judge these contests ourselves, or whether we sit with others of our choosing, or whether we secure judges from other professions, or whether we form a large jury of students of public speaking, the responsibility for high-grade judging is ours, and with it the opportunity to improve the standard of public speech.

I believe that teachers of public speaking should have a dominant part in judging their own contests. Expediency alone would prompt such belief. The necessity of finding a large number of judges each year for contests in oratory and debate makes it plain that the best judges cannot always be secured, and that commonplace judges grow tired of doing a duty which does



not belong to them. It is easier to depend on the teachers of public speaking and a few interested and faithful friends, and the chances for better judging are greatly increased. Such a method gives students more confidence in the judgment rendered, and reduces in their minds the probability of freakish decisions. The outcome of contests ceases to be a mere toss-up and at least assumes the form of expert judgment.

## COURSE I IN PUBLIC SPEAKING AT WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE

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WILBUR JONES KAY  
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COURSE I in public speaking at Washington and Jefferson College is the result of a careful process of development through fifteen years of teaching in this one institution and its aims and methods have been formulated to fit the particular needs of the class of young men who enter this college and not at all with the idea of producing a model course for all colleges.

This institution is a good representative of the small classical college for men, granting the A.B. and B.S. degrees only and having as its object the furnishing of a broad cultural background for life in a democracy and in a narrower sense offering studies in groups that are arranged with the idea in mind of furnishing the best possible preparation for a subsequent pursuit of professional studies in theology, law, or medicine.

The course of study for freshmen prescribes that all who are candidates for a degree must devote four hours per week throughout the year to the work offered in the two departments of Rhetoric and Public speaking. The division of time has been left to the heads of the respective departments to settle between them, and since the professor of rhetoric did not care to offer advanced courses and was satisfied to devote his entire time to the freshman class, while I insisted on offering advanced courses and objected to giving more than one-half of my time to freshmen, it has resulted that the work in public speaking has occupied the equivalent of one hour a week throughout the year. I believe that the best results were obtained when the class met twice a week for two-thirds of the year. Each division of the class contains twenty-five men or fewer if conditions permit.

As Course I is the only course which every man in college must take in the department I try to make it a very practical course in which each man shall have a chance to learn how to use speech as a tool and be afforded the means and the knowledge for developing his powers of speech. Throughout the course

speech is treated as a tool adapted to secure certain useful ends and the aim is to learn how to use it for the purposes to which it is adopted. I seek to afford each member of the class the largest opportunity possible under the conditions for developing the ability to stand up like a man before an audience and speak his mind in such a manner that he will be easily understood and, when he will, may be successful in influencing the beliefs and actions of his listeners.

To accomplish this end a man must first be freed from the fear of an audience insofar as it disturbs the orderly processes of his mind or inhibits the free expression of his opinions and emotions; he must speak loud enough to be heard; and he must learn to adapt his speech to the speech conditions which confront him, making of each occasion a separate and distinct problem to be solved.

These four things constitute the fundamentals of good speaking and are stressed in Course I in the order named. In this course we spend no time on the ornaments and frills of speech but stick to brass tacks.

At the first meeting of the class I occupy the hour in making clear the nature and importance of the work to be undertaken. I try to disabuse their minds of the many false conceptions they have acquired from listening to platform entertainers such as impersonators and popular lecturers, so called. I cite many illustrations, particularly among recent graduates, of how the ability to speak well has opened the way to preferment and rapid rise to success. I show the relation of effective speech to everyday life, that it is as helpful to the man behind the counter, the farmer, the engineer, or the physician as it is to the lawyer or the minister. I try to make each man feel that he can acquire skill in speaking if he will work diligently and intelligently along the lines to be suggested in the class. I do not hold out any promise that he will develop the power and skill of a Webster, a Choate, a Beecher, or a Phillips Brooks, but that he may hope and expect to become a forceful and successful speaker if he has average mentality and is willing to apply himself to the work of Course I.

During the opening weeks of the course each student is called to the floor as often as the time permits and is given from three

to five minutes to talk. The aim is to help him to subdue his fear of the audience and hence little attention is paid to what he says. I ask the class to use the time in relating interesting personal experiences. Anything acquired by reading is banned. Such subjects as vacation experiences, hunting trips, parties, thrilling experiences, interesting work in which one has been engaged, describing a manufacturing process step by step, suggest the nature of the first speeches. I make it a point to show interest in the story and interrupt the speaker frequently with a question or a remark just as I would if we were engaged in informal conversation outside the classroom. I also permit and urge the members of the audience to do the same and thus we bridge over the gap between informal conversation and formal speaking. The student is on the platform facing the audience but he is merely taking the lead in an informal conversation in which all questions and remarks of the audience are addressed to him and relate to the subject of his speech. It is surprising how rapidly this process breaks down the fear which restrains so many men from attempting to speak in public.

As soon as it appears that the speaker's mind has begun to function normally while he is facing the audience I begin to offer criticisms of his speech with the aim of improving his speaking. I believe most criticism wasted that is given upon the first appearances before the class, as many of the faults which show so painfully at that stage disappear with the fear which causes them. Moreover, unless the teacher uses great tact in offering criticism, he is likely to add to or exaggerate the faults rather than remove them for he will increase the student's fear of being humiliated before the class. Only good should be spoken of the speech. If you cannot compliment the student's efforts it is better to say nothing.

We now set forth the purpose of the next speeches. It is assigned as a problem that each man shall select a task for exposition and he is to make it so clear to the class that not a single question will have to be asked of him. He is allowed to use the blackboard to make drawings if he wishes or he may make use of models or objects of any kind and he is encouraged to use concrete illustrations with which the members of the class are

familiar and can easily call up in imagination if they are not actually present before the eye. Particular stress is given at this time to making use of what Phillips calls "Reference to Experience."

All the time I am doing everything possible to develop a keen consciousness of the audience on the part of the speaker and a tenacious holding to his aim throughout the speech. The speaker is required to make a brief statement of his purpose to the class before he begins to attempt its accomplishment. If I detect any tendency to rambling or to forget the audience I immediately interrupt the speaker with a question that is calculated to bring him back to a proper attitude to his subject and audience.

In the preparation of the speeches for the class I urge the men to develop the speech on their feet in a speaking attitude before the class in imagination. I insist as best I can that each man go through his speech thus several times before he attempts to write it and then to write it merely to discover whether he is using any loose or meaningless expressions and to fasten the order of the ideas in his mind. I do not ask for any committed speeches yet and discourage the students from committing. My experience has convinced me that at this stage in attempting to recall what is on the manuscript, the student forgets his audience and his purpose and merely declaims. I am trying to develop in him the power to think intensely while speaking and the use of a committed speech is likely to employ only the faculty of memory.

While I do not allow the students to declaim model speeches of this type before the class, I do urge them to study such speeches and I frequently read good examples before the class and comment on their merits. The addresses delivered in chapel by distinguished visitors offer good material for such comment also.

And we often find excellent material in the newspapers and magazine of current issue. We do not pass to the next type of speeches until the men have gained considerable skill in exposition, narration, and description as I consider the ability to make oneself understood as fundamental to all types of speeches. The only other type of speeches that we study is that which aims to

secure action. Incidentally and naturally we must give considerable attention to the securing of belief but we stress this as a means rather than an end. Beginning with an inquiry into the underlying causes for some of the voluntary actions of the student we develop a consciousness of the power of what Phillips calls "the impelling motives"; I then begin to call attention to the ways in which these impelling motives are employed in good advertising and show how with goods of equal merit, one, through a tactful use of appeal in advertising, will gain a nation-wide sale while the other never attains to more than a local use. I get a copy of the *Saturday Evening Post* or *The Ladies' Home Journal* and turn through the advertising pages with the class calling attention to the use that is made of these impelling motives. I impress the class with the cost of this advertising and with the fact that hard-headed business men do not pay out so much money for sentimental reasons but they expect to get abundant results in sales. I then show how the same motives are used to gain other ends than the sale of goods and have each man relate how his own actions have been influenced by similar appeals. We also call attention to the differences of opinion held by members of the class on questions of policy and fact. We examine our own minds to discover why one believes one thing and another the opposite. This reveals to the men the part which prejudice, desire, environment, and preconceived ideas and opinions play in determining our habits of thinking and our attitude toward new ideas. It necessarily leads us to a discussion of the nature and tests of evidence and of reasoning. As an advanced course in Argumentation and Debating is offered I treat these subjects in Course I in a very elementary way but I aim to give each student a good working knowledge of how to test the truthfulness of facts and the soundness of reasoning and also afford him as much practice as the time will permit in attempting to influence the opinions and actions of the class. I urge the men to seek opportunity for practice in making speeches of this type outside of the classroom and I often send a group of men to a public meeting to participate in the discussion or to furnish the entire program of discussion if requested.

We use as a text in this course Phillips' *Effective Speaking*. I have found this to contain the clearest and most interesting

statement of the problems involved in the types of speeches we study in this course of any text I have examined. We do not have any recitations on the text and we have no examination in theory. We use it merely as a guidebook to supplement the suggestions and criticisms offered in the classroom. It is my practice to attempt to lead the student to formulate his own rules before referring him to any in the text. I do not wish any student to accept a rule until he understands the reasonableness of it and the necessity for it.

I should grossly exaggerate if I should say that at the end of the year every man in the class has become a forceful and finished speaker. But I do not exaggerate when I say that every man who receives credit for the course has shown marked progress toward the attainment of that desired end and that he has a fair command of the tools of speech so that he may continue to make progress if he will continue to make use of what he has learned in Course I. He has acquired an assurance of his power that makes him unafraid to get up and talk when he wants to do so.

Ten years' experience with this course gives me great confidence in its merits. I do not recommend it to inexperienced teachers nor for all conditions. I do not believe any teacher could succeed with such a course unless he had developed the judgment which only a considerable experience can give. One cannot give hard and fast rules of thumb for teaching such a course. Those must be determined largely by the ingenuity of the individual teacher. Every successful teacher is to a great extent original in his methods. It is not likely that any two teachers will succeed equally with the same method. I have no hard and fast rules for teaching anything. I do not believe in such for to my mind each student offers a distinct and different problem to the teacher. When I see a man who claims that he has one way of making speakers of all comers I brand him as a quack. His method smacks of the patent medicine panaceas. The wise teacher proceeds, as does the wise physician, to discover the needs of the particular student before prescribing for him.

You may wonder that I have said nothing of voice training, breath control, gesture, etc. I have never had any success teach-

ing these subjects to a class. I do not say that it can't be done but I can't do it and I have never seen anyone else making such success in doing it as to cause me to envy him. I devote one period to showing the class the value of a well-placed voice and how to secure a proper placing of their own; I also demonstrate how to control the breath while speaking. Further than that all that is done is accomplished through personal criticism and suggestion. I have a little pamphlet of exercises which I give each member of the class, and when he shows any particular fault I assign him the exercise that will correct it if diligently practiced and it is up to him to practice it. I never urge a man to gesture, but if he does so and his gesture is awkward or meaningless I help him to correct it. I believe gesture will take care of itself when the speaker feels the inclination to gesture and if he doesn't feel the inclination he had better not gesture.



## CONVICTION AND PERSUASION: SOME CONSIDERATIONS OF THEORY

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ARE conviction and persuasion two separate and distinct things? There is something about this question that seems to defy solution; the wise men divide into opposing camps, and the battle goes on. New impetus has been given the subject by the recent discussion of Miss Yost in her article<sup>1</sup> "Argument from the Point of View of Sociology." There she has thrown down the gage to those who accept the two-fold division sanctioned by the usage of centuries. Basing her conclusions upon the data of sociology she contends that the partition of public address into argument and persuasion is meaningless and antiquated. As a further contribution to the subject and as a support to Miss Yost's attitude, I here offer some citations and conclusions from modern psychology. ~~My thesis is that any division of appeal and speech into conviction and persuasion is unsound from the point of view of psychology and unnecessary from the point of view of rhetorical theory.~~

The answer to this problem lies ready to hand in the findings of psychology; singular it is that we have been so long in gathering the data and using it for our needs. Relying upon rhetoric and composition, we have, as it turns out, built upon shifting sands. Rhetoric as a science has been too much of the study, if not of the arm-chair; too many of the conclusions of the rhetoricians, lacking strict empirical basis, are merely verbal shufflings, and not valid solutions of problems. An excellent illustration of the reliance upon words and pure abstractions of the study-chair is to be found in the customary explanation as to why conviction and persuasion should be looked upon as two different things rather than as one.

Yet despite the age-long tradition of a dualism in the matter of winning a desired response, the concept is going through an evolution. The time-honored view of a two-fold division, clear-cut and definite, which has endured the vicissitudes of several

<sup>1</sup> QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING, III; April, 1917; p. 109 ff.

centuries has become the subject of attack, yet this view still is accepted; we find it set forth fully and frankly by so recent a writer as Foster:<sup>2</sup> "Conviction addresses the understanding; it aims to establish belief on rational grounds. But *action* is not often based on purely rational motives. The volition must be secured through arousing the emotions. This is the work of persuasion." Baker and Huntington<sup>3</sup> see a flaw in the fencing-off concept; they moderate it to the statement: "The two (conviction and persuasion) are complementary, one being the warp the other the woof of argumentation." This is an attitude judiciously chosen; but it loses its vantage when it is later supplanted by the same concept as that of Foster's. What else may we say of it when the text asserts (p. 10), "The history of argumentation shows that usually conviction is preceded or followed by persuasion"! But warp and woof cannot be envisaged as following one another in straight-line sequence; they give us solely a picture of intricate interlocking and interweaving. Later (p. 263) this text slips still farther away when the authors allow themselves to say (p. 10), "He who only persuades runs the dangers of all excited action." Obviously the two things are here looked upon as two distinctly different entities. Yet the authors come back again to the original woof and warp ground by saying later (p. 11), "But a reader should never forget that this separation is artificial and made wholly for pedagogic reasons."

Other writers during the past two decades take positions differing from these chiefly in verbal statement only. Alden,<sup>4</sup> for example, remarks: "One may wish to induce his hearers not only to agree with his doctrine but to *act* upon it; and experience shows that action does not by any means always follow conviction." Ketcham<sup>5</sup> comes near to taking a new stand when he says: "The end of argumentation is action. It may be only an action of the mind resulting in a definite belief which will exert an influence in the world for good or evil. It may be the desire of the one who argues to persuade his hearers to advocate his opinions and beliefs . . . It may be that some more decided

<sup>2</sup>*Argumentation and Debate*; Boston, 1908; p. 262.

<sup>3</sup>*Principles of Argumentation*; New York, 1905; p. 10.

<sup>4</sup>*The Art of Debate*; New York, 1900; pp. 4 and 5.

<sup>5</sup>*Argumentation and Debate*; New York, 1914; p. 5.

physical action is desired . . . It may be the taking up of arms against a state. . . . Here everything is action; there is no room for a separate division of conviction. It is a step forward. But later this author lapses when he speaks in the traditional strain (p. 121): "The main part of the argument which is contained in the proof carries forward the work of persuasion." This time they evidently are two, and evidently distinguishable one from the other. As also when he says (p. 94), "The distinction between conviction and persuasion . . . again enters into the argumentative process."

The latest bow to the traditional attitude renders service in no uncertain manner; let doubters beware! Stone and Garrison<sup>6</sup> make bold to declare: "It is difficult to imagine two processes more dissimilar than these two methods of influencing human thought. Conviction rigidly excludes from consideration anything which is emotional in its nature." One could almost suspect that a lawyer had had something to do in the framing of that sentence! But what shall we say of such whole-hearted allegiance to the view it presents? Is it in harmony with the obvious trend of rhetorical theory? We shall see.

For the verdict is far from unanimous. Doubt has come over the authorities who write on this subject. The first noteworthy break from the past reveals a sharp refusal to be content with a two-fold division. Phillips<sup>7</sup> in naming his "general ends" of speech, instead of two chooses five as the basis of his division. Of his five two are called by the names *belief* and *action*. The others are *clearness*, *impressiveness*, and *entertainment*. This pioneer move toward freedom from the elder rhetoricians, however, makes the mistake of adding instead of subtracting; it turns to the left instead of to the right. Such classifications as those given by Phillips are very far from mutually exclusive; for to be clear is often to be at the same time impressive, establish belief, move to action, and even be delightfully entertaining. To be impressive is to create a mental state so much like action as to be inseparable from it; beside no action is possible without impressiveness of some kind. Again, clearness, belief, and entertainment are all so many kinds of impressiveness. And so on;

<sup>6</sup>*The Essentials of Argument*, 1916.

<sup>7</sup>*Effective Speaking*; Chicago, 1908.

the list is helpful in making practicable outlines for speeches, but not in solving problems of rhetorical theory.

The most recent attempt to answer this conundrum is so full and careful in its treatment that it merits in its turn only treatment of a like care. Winans<sup>8</sup> gives more than two pages (185-187) to citations and discussions of the issue, arriving at the conclusion (p. 186, footnote), "The distinction (between belief and action) seems to me to be a valuable one." But this single statement does not do justice to Winans' position, for on pages 247 and 248 he declares that "no hard and fast distinction should be understood here, only an emphasizing of the fact that there may be two phases of one process." This seeming contradiction is explained in the light of what Winans considers the guiding principle of his system, "The key-word is Attention." (p. xiii.) Belief and persuasion he says are both matters of "inducing others to give fair, favorable, or undivided attention to propositions." (p. 194.) Thus his chief concern is to show how readers and hearers are affected by attention.

So on page 271 he feels no compunctions about speaking of "persuasive argument" and on page 273 of "both persuasion and conviction," and on page 185 declares that persuasion as he uses the term "is not limited to inducing physical acts, but includes changing the mental attitude, as by removing prejudice, bringing about a fair-minded attitude toward a person, a willingness to consider a proposition, or a desire to accept it." We must not overlook also the one additional consideration that in the preface (p. viii) the author recommends that with his book "should be used a book on argumentation," and that he gives only "incidental attention" to "such topics as the rules of evidence, fallacies, the analysis and briefing of arguments." This gives us a clear indication that he feels an essential difference between the concept of persuasion and the concept of motionless, rational conviction as set off, say, by Foster or Stone and Garrison.

This vigorous effort to solve the problem, revealing as it does the great complexity of it, still leaves some prickly doubts; and it is to deal with these that this paper is written. The issue can be stated in various ways: (1) Are belief and action two different entities, or are they one and the same thing? (2)

<sup>8</sup>*Public Speaking*; New York, 1917.

Shall we speak of conviction *and* persuasion, or use one term for both? (3) Can all processes induced in a hearer or reader be described by the same concept, or must we use two, and even more? If we answer that the processes are essentially different, then we face, despite the presumption implied by centuries of use, certain subsidiary questions: (a) Precisely where does one method end and the other begin? (b) What are the terms that accurately describe their essential differences? (c) Can we conceive of conviction and persuasion as essentially different but nevertheless as guided by a single common principle? These must be answered.

But, on the other hand, if we contend that the process is one and one only, we then face questions like these: (a) In what terms can you state the unity so that there will be no omissions? (b) How do you explain away a duality so easily apparent and so obviously useful? (c) What is the one law that governs all the phenomena of speech and appeal—argumentation, conviction, persuasion, entertainment, exposition? (d) How can such a law be stated so as to fit all cases? Answers to these questions will be hinted at in various ways throughout this paper, but inasmuch as each of them is worthy of treatment at least as full as the length of this article, they can be only summarized at this time.

Let me say plainly here, what I have already indicated, that I see no hope for a solution from rhetoricians and lexicographers. Belief, argument, persuasion, reasoning—nothing other than ways of influencing the mind; mental processes can be described and explained only in terms of psychology; the solution of the difficulty, accordingly, is to be found in psychology alone. I cannot help feeling that if the authorities cited had sought the solution of this problem, as some have done for parts of their texts, in what psychology has to offer, they could have given their readers a more modern statement of the facts or else would have presented a single clear impression incapable of ambiguities.

Psychologists present a strikingly solid front on this issue. For them there is only one concept that describes what happens when an organism is stimulated in any and all possible ways, and that concept is expressed in the term *action*, or its synonyms, *activity* and *reaction*—as the psychologist uses them—all mean

**fundamentally the same thing.** Beginning with the purely chemical change that takes place in, say, the taste buds or the retina, or the physical change involved in the vibration of the end organs of the ear, and going on up to the complex processes described as perception and emotion, or thence to such intricacies as solving a problem in calculus or enlisting for war—the term *action* does universal and satisfactory service. Terms used by the psychologist to suggest divisions into mental processes are not meant to denote any differentiation into action and that-which-is-not-action. So the terms sensation, feeling, association, perception, ideation, emotion, attention, will, while useful for psychological description, are understood as having reference to aspects of the larger whole—action; or let us use a word in many ways better suited to our purposes, and one that will be used freely in the future—*response*.<sup>9</sup>

Now for the evidence presented by the psychologists. James says,<sup>10</sup> "All mental states (no matter what their character as regards utility may be) *are followed by bodily activity of some sort*. They lead to inconspicuous changes in breathing, circulation, general muscular tension, and glandular or other visceral tension, even if they do not lead to conspicuous movements of the muscles of voluntary life. Not only certain states of mind (such as those called volitions) but states of mind as such, *all* states of mind, even mere thoughts and feelings, are motor in their consequences."

Munsterberg gives us a statement that is precisely to the point of this discussion:<sup>11</sup> "Our real action is not the movements

"As a matter of fact, speaking and appeal can be completely described in terms of any of the complex mental processes, such as association, perception, attention, emotion, or will. Winans has shown that it can be done in terms of attention. It seems to me, however, that action, and particularly response, is the fundamental concept. What the speaker is seeking when he makes a speech is a certain *response* from his hearers. As a description of this response, attention is only incidental, only a way station. Still more strictly, attention is only one way of describing and picturing the configurations and patterns of unitary responses which are sometimes multitudinous in number. A theory of persuasion based upon action as response, is the next step in the progress of the science. Also it is directly in line with the psychology of such recent writers as Pawlow, Sherrington, Freud, MacDougall, Münsterberg, Judd, Dewey, Holt, and others.

<sup>9</sup>*Psychology; Briefer Course*; p. 5; 1912.

<sup>11</sup>*Psychology General and Applied*; New York, 1914; p. 162.

of our arms and fingers, of our lips and vocal cords, but the reorganization of our motor centres."

Colvin<sup>12</sup> gives us almost a motion picture of this inner activity when he says: "The simplest activity of the nervous system is represented as due to a stimulus affecting an end organ, traversing a sensory nerve to a specific brain center or centers and then transferring itself to a motor nerve that innervates a muscle and results in an adjustment." Note the verbs used here; every one would be applicable to the performances of a man taking a truck-load of goods from one depot to another; they are all descriptive of action and activity. And Judd,<sup>13</sup> employs the following expressions as side headings: "Activity does not necessarily mean movement." "Every kind of impression—light, color, smell—produces activity." "Changes in motor activity and circulatory activity accompany subjective changes." (By "subjective changes" he means what is commonly called ideas, images, and feelings.) "Involuntary hand movements reflect subjective changes."

But some will say, "That is all well enough for psychology; yet in practical matters of speech there is a clear-cut division adequately described by the accepted meanings of the words, conviction and persuasion; why then needlessly squeeze the two into one?" Isn't it legitimate to speak of "physical" and "mental" acts? The question is a good one and must be met; it carries with it a strong presumption that cannot be ignored. My first reply is this; once we submit our problems to the court of psychology, we must abide by the decisions and the laws of evidence enforced in that court. I fear we shall have only a sorry patchwork if we solve one problem by psychology and another, vitally interwoven with it, by a combination of rhetoric, dictionary meanings, and everyday usage. **The psychologist cannot today make any distinction between "physical" action and "mental" action; to him it is one and the same thing. Mind and body are two aspects of the same entity; all action is both of the mind and of the body; there can be no separation which implies that mind exists somewhere else than in the body or that**

<sup>12</sup>*The Learning Process*; p. 33.

<sup>13</sup>*Psychology*; General Introduction; Chapter VII, Experience and Expression, pp. 182-212. (I strongly recommend this chapter. C. H. W.)

it exists in any one bodily member. Mind and body are so inextricably interwoven that such a solution ignores the fundamental realities and is purely verbal.

My second answer to the query as to why we cannot be satisfied with the division into physical acts and mental acts, is that it offers no two divisions that are mutually exclusive. Let us make an arbitrary, though representative list of the activities of the mind—including those that involve, of course, the body. Take the following list: sensation, ideation, conception, feeling, attention, perception, memory, association, judgment, belief, emotion, choice, assent, a nod, an uttered word, a raising of the hand, rising to one's feet, coming forward, casting a vote, paying money, subscribing, and rushing forth to deeds of violence. Now observe that along about the words "choice, assent, a nod, an uttered word, a raising of the hand," we appear to go from "thinking" to "acting" in a way to give color to the old-time dichotomy. And I would be one of the last to insist that the shift is not real or is not of considerable significance. But when we try to fix a hard and fast line, we immediately face difficulties; our division does not divide the way we think it ought to. Take the action implied in the word *nod*; is there any fundamental difference to a speaker between an outer nod visible to the eye and the inner nod that merely is the tightening of certain muscles and the accelerating of the blood flow in a given manner? Surely not in so far as securing a response is concerned; where there is stimulation of any kind there is response, and that means action.

The same applies to the use of words. If a speaker gets a man to vote Yes, orally or on paper, we have no difficulty in calling it an act. What, then, of the case where the hearer merely says his Yes to himself in the muscles of the mouth and larynx; is the effect as response any different? Decidedly not; in both cases alike the man has responded. Likewise, if the hearer merely experiences an increased blood pressure, a hardening of the muscles of the arm and leg, or a change in the configuration of active cortical cells that means apprehension of a meaning? All are action and cannot be made meaningful in any category of non-action.

Life is full of these invisible activities. There is not a moment of our existence that we are not doing something; *and*



*a proper description of the action at any time would have to be made in terms of the whole organism, every act is of the whole machine.* Assuredly, then, when we are being stimulated by a speaker, we are as busy as a hive of bees, and with an activity frequently quite as hidden from the eye of an observer. Our neurones are in a constant state of agitation and change; our blood flow is now fast, now slow; our viscera sink, rise, or churn; our breathing is accelerated or retarded; our muscles twitch or become set; the whole machine is one coördinated concatenation of activity and inner movements.

The facts are well illustrated by the phenomenon of automatic writing. If by a screen one shuts off the right hand so that it cannot be seen and then places it on a ouija board provided with a pencil that rests upon a sheet of paper, and then if one looks at pictures or listens to another reading aloud, it will be discovered that, entirely unknown to the subject, he has written words and even sentences or has made all kinds of marks on the paper.<sup>14</sup> The livelong day some of us continually sing, drum with the fingers, tighten the jaw, and perform countless like acts entirely out of sight or sound of an observer. To be alive is to be constantly in a state of activity. Without cessation or interruption we respond the whole day through to the stimuli of impressions from without and within.

*Therefore, in all matters of human experience, whatever events can be brought under the term response must be conceived as also belonging to the term action; any classification that denies this must thereby ignore the organic nature of mind, and can be only a loose and meaningless manipulation of words. Response, and response of all possible kinds, must be conceived of as action, or else the term action is entirely useless for purposes of theory and practice. And this compulsion is as great upon the science of rhetoric as it is upon the science of psychology.*

But somewhere here is an important difference, on that all seem agreed. Where is it to be found? How can we state it? *Evidently something that looks like a dichotomy into action and not-action has got itself mistaken for the real thing; what is this interloper and where is it to be found?* The answer is

<sup>14</sup>Jastrow: *Fact and Fable in Psychology*; Boston, 1901; Chapter on "A Study of Involuntary Movements," pp. 307-336.

—clear: the error of the conviction-persuasion, emotion-intellect, thought-action duality is found in the fact that we discuss this issue, *not* in terms of what the responder actually does, but in terms of what the observer perceives him doing. What we have been talking about for ages in our rhetorical theory is not what the actor does, but what a spectator can detect by eye and ear. *It is a difference, not between acting and thinking, but between one kind of action that happens also to be perceivable movement and another kind of action in which the movement is invisible and unperceivable.* But this is not a difference between action and not-action.

But someone objects. Isn't this division the very one we need for practical purposes of rhetorical theory? Let us consider this question; there is something behind it. For if we go on making our division at this point where movement changes from invisible to visible, we are confronted with certain inescapable implications; and if we cannot face them successfully, our old theory falls. When we put up a bar, it must shut the sheep in one fold and the goats in the other. Of course, we might simply assert that the division explains itself, that it is self-evident as necessary to rhetorical method. But inasmuch as no text that I know of offers perceivable movement as the basis of a bifurcation, we can dismiss this first alternative. So we turn to the explanations that lie more or less hidden behind the traditional dichotomy.

First, there is the concept of *complexity*; it may easily be offered in defense that we need a division because of the difference in intricacy and number of the functions employed; action is more complicated than thinking yet this rests upon a fundamental misconception; there can easily be greater complexity of response in working out a stiff problem when not even the slightest movement is perceivable than in jumping up and shouting "Let's go fight Philip!" Many of our visible movements are so thoroughly automatic that they are performed with a minimum of mental processes; in the psychologist's terminology, they are performed in the lower reflex levels. On the other hand, abstract, conceptual thinking may keep the whole nervous system at work from the lowest spinal arcs to the top of the cortex. This division clearly overlaps.

Can this division, secondly, be explained in terms of effort and strain? Again, No; some of the most gruelling experiences we undergo are endured without visible motion. Frequently applause, shouting, or rushing from the hall involve much less exertion than just sitting still and seeing red while we hide our feelings. Then again we can be utterly exhausted by passively listening to a noise and in turn can be actually refreshed by running, jumping, tugging, and straining. The essential activity is in the nerves, not the muscles. So this division overlaps also.

Can the differentiation then be *duration*, the length of time involved in the action? The same answer must be given again. Motile action may come quickly or it may come slowly; we may flare up suddenly, yell, throw up our hats, and parade around the hall, all upon an instant's impulse; or we may wait until the next day, or the next year before we vote or shoot, or sign the papers. So also action entirely non-motile may be fast or slow; we may make our decision immediately upon the perception of a stimulus, or we may let it incubate for days, months, and years. Thus perceivable movement can be satisfactory as the basis for a rhetorical division neither on the grounds of complexity of the process, the effort involved, nor the duration of the experience.

But why is not the difference to be found in the often-expressed distinction between emotional states and states non-emotional, or intellectual? For a very good reason; both are states of activity. The only proper way to describe them is in terms of types of response. They are emphatically in the same category. An emotion is a highly integrated and organized set of actions touched off by a stimulus free from inhibitions and interruptions; it goes straight down one road unchecked and even blindly. The intellectual type of activity is also highly organized but it is one that operates in the face of difficulties, checks, obstructions, excursions, and retreats. It must halt at crossings before going ahead and must pick and choose its steps with deliberation and foresight. They are at one in being complexes of actions; both may or may not be accompaniments of

visible movement; and they cannot be differentiated in terms of action and non-action.<sup>15</sup> . . .

Many of our most stirring emotions, hidden like the Spartan boy's fox, eat at our vitals and yet reveal no sign of their presence; while our coolest judgments may send us to the ends of the earth or drive us to acts of the greatest violence. Emotions and perceived movements are not synonymous; to imply that emotional stir is needed to get us to walk, write, or to reach, into our pockets, while to think, believe, and accept come always without emotion, is to get one's psychology hopelessly twisted. Much of our motionless activity is highly emotional, and many of our most strenuous movements are clearly intellectual. So to solve the movement problem, we must find some other line of cleavage; for we still feel that it represents a division that is real and significant.

Still, one more commonly-used explanation of this traditional division remains; that between action instigated rationally and action instigated non-rationally. Is this the same as the emotion-intellectual division? Often they are regarded as synonymous. But if they are the same thing in different terms, then obviously the explanation is open to the objections just stated. However, there is an even better reason for rejecting these concepts as explanatory of the dualism. A speech or appeal, stripped of all reasoning and given up wholly to non-rational processes, is unthinkable. Every kind of address or speech rests in some degree on reason. Reason in speech and writing is a matter of orderliness, consistency, regularity, system, plan. In a strict sense *non-rational*, as applied to composition, is synonymous with muddled, futile, merely exclamatory. If there is sequence, from, order, there is some element of rationality present. But the conventional division contemplates no such meaning as this; accordingly we have no alternative than to declare that a division on the basis of rationality cannot be alleged as the same one intended by the division into conviction and persuasion.

So we have not yet stated a satisfactory basis for dividing at movement. Assuming now that we accept action, or response,

<sup>15</sup>Just to suggest how easily we confound these terms: this very article, all would agree, is what we call intellectual stuff. Yet it is written under definite and strong emotional excitement, and very likely may stir up other emotions of a rather vigorous nature.

as the single category needed. If, then, we can give a satisfactory answer why a line has been so consistently drawn at the point where movement is detectable, we can remove the greatest source of doubt as to the validity of the monistic treatment of theory. And this answer is to be found by following the cue given by Miss Yost in the paper referred to above, *a speech or an argument always implies a social situation*. Here we have an adequate reason. The social situation involved in speech-making and in listening as an auditor is felt most acutely when an observer can detect by eye and ear that the speaker has hit home, that he has moved his hearers. The best basis for such perception is movement and sound. Applause, laughter, agitation, writing down subscriptions, giving money, registering votes, "hitting the trail," rising to rush forth, burning and killing—all give evidence that the audience has succumbed and has made obeisance, that the speaker is victorious. Thenceforth the struggle implied between speaker and hearer is a closed incident and some things have suddenly become irrevocable.

Often thus to yield openly is painful if not fateful; it has consequences; we give ourselves away when we vowed we would not; we feel that we have sold out. Accordingly we cultivate, as we grow in sophistication, a pose that keeps all the activity locked up out of sight, no matter how hot the bearings may become or what internal combustion may take place. As much as possible we cut movement to a minimum; and we may even earn the praise of being unemotional, unexcitable, forsooth intellectual, when in fact, we undergo more real activity twice over than men who blow up with a loud report amid a great scattering of arms and legs and hair. Thus it is entirely possible to give a satisfactory reason why we have long accepted this difference, *for movement, as a response to a speaker, has vital consequences socially*.

These consequences are far-reaching and penetrating. If an act is not good form socially, if it "isn't done" by our set, we do our best to hold in. Especially when we take pride in our schooling and training, the ingrained tendency is to bottle up our activities for fear of making a spectacle of ourselves before our neighbors. We refrain from letting the explosion break out until we find out whether the man behind us or beside us is going

to explode too. It is agonizingly painful to be the only one to haw haw or to sniffle or to hold up one's hand. And very often when we do at last break out, we make it a good one and clear out our system while we are at it. Once the crust breaks, the greater the pressure the louder the noise.

For these two reasons, then, movement is hard to secure from an audience. We simmer or boil, cool or freeze undiscovered if we can work it that way. Because if we tilt the lid or tip over the vessel, everybody is going to know it, and then we have to pay the price; the secret is out and we stand committed before our little world. So we have a way of putting a speaker to his best trumps to get any visible or audible sign out of us; we habitually defy him to make us show down. And this is the reason, I am convinced, that rhetorical tradition has drawn the line at perceived movement. The difference is one easy to detect, in plain sight. Also a dichotomy has fitted in with the old conception of separating the intellect from the emotions, thought from action, conviction from persuasion, soul from body; and so the men who have written on rhetoric, from Aristotle down, aided and abetted by the dictionary makers, have filled our texts and loaded our speech with terms that rest on this dualism. For common needs it still has its uses; very often we are interested in the audience's overt movements more than in those that are hidden; and also when a speech has movement for its aim, its success must be measured by the movement secured. (Rider)

But when we essay a theory of persuasion, argumentation, appeal—call it what you will—we shall go astray as surely as we do not see that every possible response a speaker can get from his audience is an action, whether it be merely understanding his words or snatching up the banners and raging around the hall. I agree emphatically with Winans in calling the process by one name, persuasion; because it deals with only one entity, and of all terms possible persuasion is the largest and most inclusive. Moreover, it is traditionally associated with the appeal for action, and if action is the sole object of speech, then persuasion is the fitting term to use. Argumentation means nothing in popular parlance; it is a made-up term of limited significance; it has a sound purely formal; and is used only in an academic

and doctrinaire sense. Persuasion covers the whole ground, suggests efforts worthy of the best in a man, and still has meaning in everyday usage.

But this discussion is leaving unanswered a host of questions that fairly bristle. If we reject the old division into conviction and persuasion, on what basis do we get any divisions at all? Obviously a working method must have joints and members; what must they be? Differences in situations exist; how do you classify them to fit this notion? And as it is harder to induce hearers to respond with noticeable movement than otherwise, it is sound practice, as a matter of the science of rhetoric, to lay down rules to meet the two different situations. For a sample rule: "To cause a man or a crowd to respond openly, appeal through *social* impulses more than when you are trying to get him to respond covertly." The need herein involved would be completely covered, I believe, by a division of motives into *social and nonsocial* and then by showing how to apply the two different types to different situations. Then too how do you fit logic and reason into such a scheme? These are fair and vital questions.

But there is not space here even to begin; each is a long story in itself, and none is without its answer. Suffice it to say that a theory and method of persuasion is possible that will clear away the haziness that now prevails. It will be one that will recognize the monism of action; that will not concern itself with any division of the mind into intellect, emotions, and will; that will take the woof and warp figure of Baker and Huntington at its full value and hold to it; that will perceive that if attention is the key of persuasion we must not tolerate a dualism which prevents us from showing how it unlocks all possible processes; that will make the hearer the basis of all divisions and not the subject-matter; (See Miss Yost's strictures on Foster; Op. At. supra) that will reveal the full influence that social relations play in securing response; and finally, that will state the accepted principles of composition and rhetoric in terms of stimulus-response, stimulation-action. Whoever takes up these problems will have no difficulty in finding, right here in the twentieth century, abundant opportunity to add "new principles

of dealing with the subject" even though it may have been, as we are told,<sup>16</sup> "an old story before the Christian era."

By way of brief summary, then, this paper aims at the following conclusions: (1) As a matter of the theory of public address and appeal, all dualistic attitudes separating response into action and non-action are untenable and misleading. (2) The dichotomy into perceived movement and movement not perceived, to which the rhetorical theory of tradition is committed, is restricted in its application to one of many subsidiary hints with respect to differences in method, but is not a difference of a major character. (3) The whole theory of argumentation, conviction, persuasion, the rhetoric of public address, must be rewritten to fit the facts of mind as accepted today; which will be tantamount to restating them in terms of stimulus-response, object-subject, and environment-attitude.

<sup>16</sup>Stone and Garrison, *Op. cit.*, preface.



## TEACHING READING AND SPELLING AS FUNCTIONS OF PERSONALITY

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**T**HE following notes have been selected from a rather extensive collection of questions, problems, discussions, quotations, remarks, exclamations, etc., which have been gathered in recent years in an effort to understand the deeper aspects of reading and speaking and in order to determine the technique and the methods which are most promising in teaching these subjects as functions of personality. The text is, "for out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh"; the context is a class in the fundamentals of public speaking. The treatment is both theoretical and practical.

The term public speaking is to be understood as including all of the various ways in which human beings communicate one with another by means of spoken language, whether the speaker uses his own words or the words of another.

The first big problem, for the teacher as well as for the student, is to become clearly conscious of and to respond generously to the whole situation within which the speaking occurs and from which it derives its meanings. This situation includes the environment, the audience (the social group), the speaker, the subject-matter about which he speaks, the occasion (the purpose for which the social group has been formed), the speaking itself, and certain interrelations among or between all of these.

The next thing to do is to develop a consciousness of and a response to each of these aspects in the atmosphere of the whole situation and in harmony with the others. There seems to be a normal ratio between each aspect and the whole which we should earnestly seek to secure and to maintain. Only a large amount of experimental work can decide how much consciousness the speaker should have of his audience, of his subject-matter, of himself, etc., in order to do his best work. There are some hints that the more consciousness the speaker has of the whole situa-

tion and of all of its parts the better, provided the normal ratio is preserved.

The speaker presents four important aspects as we view him in his setting in a class in public speaking, namely, his environment, his body, his mind, and his inner self, his personality. These are to be viewed as functions rather than as substances. Through the body impressions come from the environment to the mind and set it into action, and through the body and mind the inner self is aroused to self-activity.

The formula of learning may be stated in a series of processes as follows: Impression, central process, expression, return impression, increased central process, enriched expression, further return impression, etc., in a spiral procedure.

By impression we mean the processes by which the stimuli from the environment and from the parts of the body are sent in to the brain and arouse the mind to action. Eight kinds of mental action are so produced, namely, seven kinds of sensations (corresponding to the seven kinds of sense organs in the body), and feelings, the bodily origin of which has not been determined with certainty.

The central processes are sensations, perceptions, images, ideas, thoughts, etc., which differ in complexity and in degree of development. Recent studies in human behavior have emphasized the conception of levels in consciousness or of genetic depths of impression and reaction. Some actions show on their faces that they are shallow, others that they are deep. A convenient way of presenting this conception to oneself is by picturing the impressions as turning about and coming out at different distances within the mind or self. The importance of this view is apparent in teaching one to be self-active in reading or in speaking. The deeper the impression the more sincere one seems to be and the more meaning he communicates to others. Abandonment to the truth is another form in which the deeper levels are suggested. There is no more important problem in education today than how to lead the students to receive deeper impressions and to express themselves from a deeper source of meaning. The first of these makes them appreciate more richly and the second makes them more eloquent.

Expression is the outward flowing of nervous stimuli to the muscles and the actions produced by the contraction of these muscles. Both voluntary and involuntary muscles are to be included. The voluntary muscles are organized into six more or less unified groups, namely, those producing voice, facial expression, head movements, gestures of the arms and hands, movements of the trunk of the body, and movements of the legs and feet. Each of these groups not only has a share in all expression but also has certain things to do which it can do better than can any other part of the body.

The return impressions come from what the speaker is doing as he expresses. They come through or from the muscles chiefly with the help of the eyes and the ears. One's ability to become conscious of what he is doing determines his learning to a very large extent. Is it true that the more conscious of what he is doing one becomes the faster he learns? These new impressions join with the original impressions and together they bring about more adequate central processes, which in turn get more fully expressed, and so on. The depth of the impression which one secures depends in great degree upon the emphasis which is put upon the return impressions from the positions and movements of one's own body.

The history of education in the United States shows three modes of treatment in the teaching of reading and speaking. The order of this development has been from the shallower views to the deeper and more fundamental. All three modes are now in use, more or less mixed with other modes.

The first of these modes is mechanical, external, formal, synthetic, and physical. It views speaking as a function of the body. The parts are to be learned first and then put together in accordance with certain rules and regulations. One learns not by being spontaneous, but by receiving suggestions and directions from without and then by consciously directing his bodily movements accordingly. To get the forms perfected is the first and most important part of the training. As much meaning will afterward be put in as may be. When the student has learned to manipulate his voice and his gesture in a skillful way he then begins to put these actions together in series corresponding to the selection which he is reading or the speech which he is wording.

The second mode of treatment is functional, internal, analytic, and mental. Speaking and reading are now viewed as functions of the mind. The student is to concentrate his attention on what his mind is doing and to learn to control the activities of his mind so that he can make his mind do whatever he wishes to have it do. When reading a selection or giving a speech he puts in those mental activities which he has already chosen as most appropriate for the purpose in hand, namely, the rendering of the words in his speech or selection. The subject-matter is analyzed into small parts and the mental actions corresponding to these parts are selected. These ways of working belong to the thought methods. This control of the mental processes makes it possible to permit the bodily actions to be spontaneous because of the belief that whatever the mind does the body will express effectively if it is not interfered with.

The third mode has been hinted occasionally all along the historic way, but it has only recently come into clear consciousness. According to this view reading and speaking are functions of the inner self, the personality, the soul. This view is organic, total, real, analytic-synthetic, and personal. The whole person is to be engaged in expression and impression. The speaker is a whole person communicating in a significant way with other persons in order to fulfill some life purpose. Speaking is not a putting together of parts (either physical or mental) which have been prepared beforehand, but it is a bringing into prominence of aspects of a living, growing, and perfecting personality. It is not a mosaic, but a growing organism. Both the mental and the bodily actions are to be spontaneous, while the inner self is to be controlled. Through the body and the mind impressions are received from the world without and through the mind and the body expressions find a way out to other persons.

Our present problem is to find out what this new view is and means and how we may secure personality reactions of a deeper and deeper sort. But how is one to learn to respond more deeply? Can one will to be deeper and have the result follow the volition immediately or must one get the depth of response indirectly? The important thing seems to be to make the conditions favorable for the impression to go on in instead of coming out so soon.

What attitude of the mind is most favorable for this? Certain things seem to be helpful, such as an expectant attitude, a "wise passiveness," a "restless eagerness," etc. Certain emotional experiences, such as enthusiasm, love, patriotism, sometimes reach the very depths of human nature and so cause one to quite excel himself. Certain physical and mental exercises will arouse the personality in a deep way when they are used for that purpose. We need to work out a series of activities to use as means of getting deeper and deeper personal responses. We are familiar with the fact that physical activity tends to intensify mental action. Going a step further we notice that certain forms of bodily action are favorable for an increase in the depth of impression and so in the depth of meaning. By using these exercises the rearer or speaker can prepare himself for his public utterances in such a way as to appeal to his audiences in a far deeper level than when he does not so prepare. Such exercises tend to bring out the inner aspects more than the outer ones. They leave more opportunity for spontaneity of mental and bodily action as the message is being delivered. The rule is for the speaker to use as deep a level as he can successfully, always realizing that he can feel deeper than he can express, that he has possibilities of impression which are far ahead of his ability to produce. We can understand and appreciate a Shakespeare or a Beethoven, but we cannot write or play in the same class with them. Growth in receptivity always keeps several years in advance of growth in expressive power. It is this which gives the great and wonderful men audiences to whom they can speak and by whom they can be understood and appreciated. If we could understand only what we could produce in a concrete way we should be seriously handicapped in our efforts to become educated.

The problem of teaching public speaking turns out to be more complex and difficult than has generally been supposed. Expressive power seems to be due in large part to the depth of impression secured in the study of the subject-matter and in response to the whole situation. Nothing does more for the success of the teaching process than to emphasize the impression. Of course the central processes and the expression are important, but they have received too much attention in proportion to the depth of the impression.

Ordinarily the only part of public speaking to be analyzed is the subject-matter. Effective utterance demands an analysis of the audience, the environment, the occasion, and the speaker himself. The purpose of analyzing these is not to keep them in the center of attention, but to have them as a background for the speaking. The masterly insight into the situation which comes from a careful analysis of each aspect is very important in determining the degree of success of the speaker.

When attention is given to the bodily actions of the speaker he has very little chance to be spontaneous. When attention is directed to the subject-matter or to the mental action of the speaker his voice, gesture, etc., may be quite spontaneous. Improvement is then to be made by changing the mental activities, since they carry with them the corresponding changes in bodily actions. When one bases his work on the personality of the speaker both his mental and his physical actions may be spontaneous. Improvement now depends upon making such changes in self-activity, in one's personality reactions, that the spontaneous actions of the body and the mind will become efficient.

What a service public speaking can render when it teaches students to respond deeply to some of the best things in literature and in life! Then they will learn to put their whole souls into what they are doing, to throw themselves into their work in a whole-hearted way and to grow in character as well as in physical and mental skill.

To cultivate the habit of communicating with others in a deep and growing way is a most important part of a student's preparation for his life work. One who can so communicate will become a leader in the more important enterprises in his community and nation. Small talk has a place in our civilization, but what we need to be sure to include in the education of every young man and every young woman is a chance to learn how to speak to a social group in a profound way and with full devotion to some worthy cause.

One helpful thing to do is to recall some experience which moved you deeply and, keeping the effects of the recalled experience intense, to give your message in the atmosphere of these deep and vital effects. Such practice gradually makes it possible for one to strike the deeper levels when he wishes to do so.

Before speaking can be taught satisfactorily the genetic order of the development of the powers of effective and artistic utterance must be discovered and made into a program or system. Several systems for the development of the mind have been worked out and used by teachers of public speaking. Who will make such a study for the development of personality through reading and speaking? The one who does will render a great service not only to teachers of public speaking, but also to all teachers as well.

The way to become profound is not by learning a little of many things, but by getting deeper and deeper impressions from a few things, in their more fundamental meanings. To do this one must be willing to use his body and his mind in a persistent way again and again. He must find out what bodily movements are most conducive to his personal growth and then practice these movements conscientiously until he gets the habit of responding deeply whenever he wishes to do so. Then he must learn to do those things with his mind which are most helpful for the same purpose. The natural way in is from the environment to the body, then to the mind, then through it to the inner self. Such practices make one feel as if there were something magical about the situation, but when one realizes that all the experiences we get depend more or less upon muscular sensations he does not feel so surprised to find that certain actions of the body help more to stir up personality than do others.

Two big problems confront us: first is how to make a sound diagnosis, the second is how to prescribe for the students after the diagnosis has been made and verified. These two aspects of the work in public speaking are so important that we must do everything in our power to bring them into prominence in the near future. What are the fundamental things in learning to make a sound diagnosis? First, to learn to treat each student both as an individual and as a member of a certain society group. Each student becomes a case to be recorded in great detail as soon as we know how to make such a record scientifically important. The teacher must not observe the actions of the students, but interpret them. To learn to interpret deeper than the student expresses is necessary to decide what prescription to give him in

order that he may grow in the truest way. Merely to correct what he has already done gives the student a shallow habit of expression.

Teachers of reading and speaking are not advised to make a sudden transition in their teaching from the use of subject-matter to an appeal to personality. The personal method should be lived with a long time before being adopted, and when it is understood theoretically its practical use should be introduced very gradually. A rather strenuous effort to deepen the meaning of what one is saying is a good way to make a start in the use of the deeper personal methods.



## ACCESSORY SINUSES AND HEAD RESONANCE

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**T**HERE seems to be considerable disagreement among voice specialists and physicists concerning the part played in head resonance by the accessory sinuses. In our unpretentious speaking voice laboratory at the University of Iowa I am engaged in some studies which I hope will cast some additional light upon the relation.

Our laboratory furnishes the opportunity of observation and the formation of conclusions based upon a multitude of observations. While our work is limited chiefly to resonance we find it necessary to make careful analysis of the action of the respiratory muscles and of the larynx. Histories of each case are written up for the purpose of comparison and of locating family traits.

When a definite conception of the facts by the process just mentioned has been obtained then a study of the resonance of the individual's voice is begun. The use of the X-Ray is an indispensable factor in this study. And I may say that we find it most helpful in the study of the chest as well where there is a question about the action of the diaphragm or weakness due to a tubercular condition.

It is a well-known principle of physics that every vibration is best amplified by a resonator of definite capacity. We know that the vowels are sounded by the variation of the resonance chambers of the head. We know that the variable resonance cavities are the pharynx and the mouth. What are the fixed cavities?

The principal fixed cavity (by fixed I mean capable of no variation in size upon an act of the will) is the nasal passage, right and left. This is common knowledge. But do not the sinuses contribute resonance? At the anterior portion of the nasal passage, draining through the spongy ethmoid cells, is the frontal sinus. The connection between it and the nasal passage must be open for the health of the individual. The frontal sinus sometimes is absent, of course, but it exists in most persons and it varies in depth from 3 m.m. to 6 m.m. lateral view. The

anterior view shows a shape roughly like a triangle. The legs vary in length from 10 m.m. to 15 m.m. or more with the apex near the Crista Galli.

Then there are the sphenoids which open into the posterior portion of the nasal passage. They are shaped like and have a similar capacity to that of a small pecan nut. The sphenoid is readily observed upon the sciograph of a lateral view, just under the Sella Turcica.

The largest sinuses are the right and left Antra. They are located behind the cheek bones and somewhat over the double teeth. They connect with the nasal passages also.

The sizes of these sinuses vary considerably among individuals, and what may be of more importance, the thickness of the walls separating the cavities varies. I have found that there is an apparent variation in head resonance depending upon the sizes and shapes of the sinuses and the thinness of the partitions.

X The most striking case is that of a girl who had been in our classes in public speaking for two and a half years with very little improvement in a voice quality that was decidedly unpleasant. All the exercises of the usual kind she practiced faithfully. She was much affected by colds in the winter time. A radiograph showed that no amount of training would ever give her a good voice. The chambers of resonance above the palates were shallow and narrow. Furthermore one antrum and part of another were filled with inflammation. Draining these would improve the quality but not yield the resonance of larger cavities.

Another case is that of a platform manager of Chautauquas. A year ago he developed a deadness of resonance together with a huskiness of tone. A record of his voice was made upon the phonograph. Then an analysis was made with the X-Ray. The result showed the antra and the frontal sinus inflamed. These were drained at the clinic and a record of his voice was again taken on the voice machine. The two records demonstrated difference in resonance. The hoarseness we found to be caused by a "singer's nodule" on the vocal cord. This was removed by a competent surgeon.

Another case in which a radiograph showed no frontal sinus and very small antra the excessive nasal quality of the voice

seemed due to large nasal passages without the modification apparently supplied by the presence of large sinuses.

The best quality of speaking voice possessed by any of our students seems to be that of a young woman who has taken several prizes in contest public speaking. A radiograph analysis of the sinuses of this case was made. The result showed unusually large antra, ethmoids, and sphenoids. The frontal sinus was large and deep.

A large number of cases have been studied in the laboratory and I hope later to make a more complete statement of the argument of the facts. If there is a definite relationship between the accessory sinuses and resonance we shall be able at the outset of a student's course to advise him as to the possibilities of a good speaking voice based upon the anatomical structure of the voice organs.

# EDITORIAL

## EXPERT JUDGES IN THE N. O. L.

**A**T THE annual contest of the Northern Oratorical League held at the University of Minnesota last May, expert judging was tried on what might be called a large scale. There are seven institutions in this league. Each had present a contestant and a faculty representative, the latter in each case a member of the department of public speaking. The customary board of judges was done away with, and the faculty representatives acted as the board, each man rating each contestant except his own. This meant that each judge rated six contestants just as if his own were not there, and each contestant received six ratings. The tabulated result, without the names, is given below. The speakers are represented by letters at the side and the judges by figures at the top. The blank spaces in the table show of course the professional relations of judges to students. Thus speaker C and judge 5 came from the same institution.

|    | I. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | Total | Rank |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-------|------|
| A. |    | 4  | 5  | 5  | 5  | 2  | 2  | 23    | 5    |
| B. | 2  | 1  | 4  | 4  | 4  |    | 3  | 18    | 2    |
| C. | 1  | 2  | 1  | 1  |    | 1  | 1  | 7     | 1    |
| D. | 6  | 6  | 6  | 6  | 6  | 5  |    | 35    | 7    |
| E. | 4  | 3  | 2  |    | 1  | 4  | 6  | 20    | 4    |
| F. | 3  | 5  |    | 3  | 3  | 6  | 5  | 25    | 6    |
| G. | 5  |    | 3  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 4  | 19    | 3    |

This system was adopted after long consideration and much discussion. Its first trial has seemed to justify all that has been urged in favor of it by its advocates. In regard to the character of the decision itself, a glance at the table shows substantial unanimity for the first prize, and a close rating for the next three. On the whole, the table shows a very fair agreement on the part

of the judges, in the first and last places practically unanimous. There was very general and genuine satisfaction with the outcome of this contest. As far as the speakers are concerned they had the satisfaction of knowing that the rating was done by seven university department heads who must be admitted to be competent to do this sort of thing unless one wishes to deny their competence to hold the position which they are holding. It was an expert judgment rendered by a group of experts most interested in the correct decisions in this particular league. On that score this system seems to meet admirably all the tests, all the requirements of expert judging. It does away with the superficial guess work of the Honorable A and the Reverend B, who may or may not be competent judges.

The second great advantage of this system is the tremendous saving in the expenses of other judges. These faculty representatives always attend the contest anyway, their expenses being paid by their own institutions. In the past they have not judged the contest but instead the league has paid the expenses of five judges, many of whom have traveled considerable distances, it being impossible in a league of this size to get all of the judges from one locality. The expenses for traveling and entertaining the judges for the past contests have been from one hundred and fifty dollars to two hundred dollars. This great expense is completely eliminated by this faculty system of judging.

The two possible objections that we have heard urged against this scheme are these: In the first place, that university teachers of public speaking are not the best judges, that we need our standards *corrected* by judgments from the outside world, etc. But this one seems simply ridiculous. That the men who are teaching and coaching for these contests are not capable of rating the ability shown in the contest, seems to me cannot be held by one who believes them capable of performing their other duties; and that the group of seven department heads is less qualified than any other group of seven professional men is something we are not ready to admit. And, of course, we do not have our standards corrected when men who know practically nothing about speaking or speech composition render decisions which we know are quite absurd. We do not return to our universities and change our methods to square with such judgments.

So it seems to us that the statement that it is better not to have teachers of public speaking, but judges entirely outside of the profession, is hardly sufficient to throw out this scheme.

The second objection is that even though professional judges are good, these particular men would not be good because of their interest in the contest. In other words, that the fortunes of his own contestant would be uppermost in the mind of each judge and would make it impossible for him to rank the other six without considering his own. The concrete way in which this attitude on the part of the judge would work out would be this: Suppose a given judge should consider that the contest lay between his contestant and contestant X. He would not be grading his contestant and the honest way for him to do would be to give contestant X first place. If, however, he wanted to be dishonest in the matter and help his contestant to win, he would put contestant X, not in the first place, but in the sixth place. If any judge wanted to do that he might well do considerable damage. There seem to us, however, to be two guarantees against such a thing happening. First and foremost and entirely sufficient, is the character of the seven men who sit in judgment. There is not a man in the group who is cheap enough to do that sort of thing. They are simply above it, personally and professionally; and in the second place, the judgment of each man is known in detail and, of course, he must stand by it. The cards are signed by the judges; but if they were not signed, the blank space at which the column for the judge and the speaker coincide shows the identity of each judge.

A glance at this table shows that in this instance at least, no judge has tried to do that sort of thing, and we feel perfectly confident that no judge in the group will try to do it.

It seems that we have here a system which combines expert judging in the highest sense, greater interest on the part of the judges in the character of the decision to be rendered, the elimination of great expense, and the working out of a scheme by which actual standards may be set because the same men are judging year after year; thus improving, in our opinion, the whole atmosphere and educational service of this league.

The system is thus set forth in some detail in *THE QUARTERLY* because it has occurred to us that other leagues might like to try

it. We believe that it will work admirably in any league that has five contestants or more and might do very well even with three. The saving of expense and the expert character of the judgment ought to commend it to those in charge of any speaking contest. And if any teacher is in a league with some other teacher whom he would not trust to make a decision of this kind the only self-respecting thing to do is to cease relations with a man of that character. It seems much better, from all points of view, not to have contests in public speaking, than to have such contests carried on in an atmosphere of crookedness, suspicion, and duplicity.

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#### THE THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION

**T**HE third annual convention of the National Association of Academic teachers of public speaking will be held in Chicago for a three-day period during the Christmas vacation. Every reader of *THE QUARTERLY* should make this fact known to all teachers of public speaking and professional men and women interested in speech problems. You should lay your plans now for being in attendance at this three-day convention. On account of the added time, the longer period, and the more leisurely programs which are planned we expect by far the largest and best convention of workers in this field ever held. We are at work in a big and growing field full of personal interest and possibilities of great social service. We are every year gaining a surer and higher place in the field of education. There will be in this largest and most detailed convention ever held something of interest and value for every worker in every section of the broad field of speech art and science. Every member of the Association should take a personal interest in making this convention a great success and should plan now to do something to give him a share in its success. Make plans for coming yourself. Speak to others in your locality about coming. Think over what you would like to hear discussed and send suggestions to President Lardner. There will be time enough in these three days to take up a great many questions. If you have one or two that you are especially interested in send them in now and you may be practi-

cally sure that they will appear on the program. Do not put this off as the program is now being arranged and all the details will be settled during the summer or early fall in order that complete information may appear in the October *QUARTERLY*. Send suggestions to President James L. Lardner, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.



# THE FORUM

## VOICE AND ENLISTMENT

**T**HE following clipping as published in the Rochester, New York, *Post Express* for June 12, 1917, ought to be of interest to teachers of Voice.

## VOICE NO BAR TO ENLISTMENT

*Soprano Changed to Bass by Recruiting Surgeon*

MAN ACCEPTED AFTER A TEST

## VOCAL GYMNASTICS AND INSTRUCTION IN BREATHING MAKE APPLICANT FIT FOR NAVY

Falsetto voices are no bar to enlistment in the United States navy at the Rochester recruiting station, for Surgeon William J. Rogers has devised a method of eliminating the boy soprano tones from the aspirant for service afloat and reducing the vocal exhalations to that deep note which is essential to the well being of a jack tar. Readiness to meet any emergency has been inculcated as the guiding principle of the sailor's life. When a girlish-toned, big physiqued young man confronted Surgeon Rogers to-day and asked for examination preliminary to enlistment, his training stood him in good stead,

"Why the feminine voice?" he inquired.

"I have always talked this way," was the strident response of the applicant.

"Then it is about time you talked in different fashion," was the surgeon's comment.

By this time the other members of the recruiting staff were listening to the unwonted high-pitched voice, unusual at the recruiting station. Speculation as to what would happen to a man with a voice like that acknowledging the receipt of some order and trying to live with hundreds of sailors was not one bit vague or indefinite. A throat examination showed no defects.

"What you need is some vocal gymnastics," prescribed the surgeon.

Then followed a scene novel to navy recruiting stations. Voice placing apparatus were demonstrated to him in detail, and when he left a short time later, an accepted candidate for the service, his voice was deep-toned enough for service on a submarine.

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#### A SPEAKERS' TRAINING CAMP

**A** SPEAKERS' TRAINING CAMP is something new over in our Democracy, where new ideas are coming up all the time. Chautauqua, N. Y., from July 2 to July 7 was the scene of such a camp. This movement was the out-growth of the conviction of the National Security League that something was needed to arouse the American people to a sense of their patriotic duties in this time of national crisis.

In the language of the League the object of the meeting was stated as being an effort "to coördinate the rank of patriotic education and define the methods to be adopted by the speakers who will engage in a nation-wide campaign to bring to the American people a realization of the meaning of the war and the means necessary for its conduct." To accomplish the object just stated many public sessions were occupied with the discussion of matter to be presented and the manner of the presentation under varied circumstances and with varied audiences.

To a man interested in his country's welfare at this time this was an important conference. The councils of defense from twenty-seven states were represented by delegates; fifty-one colleges and universities sent men to represent them; and one hundred other organizations were interested enough to send men and women to take part in the deliberations. On the ground were historians, political scientists, ex-governors, college presidents, ministers, reformers, journalists, scientists, and just plain citizens. The general slogan was: Give information and arouse America! Enthusiasm for patriotism and an organized effort to make this patriotism of service to the government were the net results of the conference.

There is no class of men and women in America who ought to be more interested in the work outlined by this Speakers' Training Camp than those who teach Public Speaking. Here is

their chance to do some constructive work. Get in touch with that branch of the National Security League in your state that is starting a movement to educate the people for patriotic service. Learn what you can do.

If there is no Security League in your state write to the Executive Secretary of the National League, 31 Pine Street, New York. Tell him who you are and that you can make a speech for patriotism. Ask him what you can do. Tell him you are willing to use your time and energy to assist in the cause of national defense. This Secretary will send you full information as to how you may make your contribution. If the Public Speaking teachers ever had a chance to do a real, honest piece of work it is in this cause of educating for patriotic service.

C. D. H.

# PERIODICALS

*IN THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CLINIC* of February 15, 1917, there appeared an article, "Retarded School Children in Madison, Wisconsin," by Smiley Blanton, M.D., of the University of Wisconsin. The author made a survey of the schools of Madison, Wisconsin, to determine the number of children who, without adequate cause, were three years behind their grade.

1. All those who were retarded because of absence from school duty due to illness.

2. Those who lived in the country where school facilities were actually lacking or very poor.

3. Those who traveled about a great deal and had lost several years in changing from school to school or those who had been irregular in attendance due to illness were excluded.

Twelve schools were visited in which the aggregate attendance was 3631. Of this number 105 cases or 2.9% were three or more years behind their classes. The 105 cases were classified under five heads, as follows:

1. Feeble-mindedness. Due to heredity and conditions at birth and early infancy.

2. Dulness. Due to same cause.

3. Backwardness. Due to some abnormality of the internal secretions.

4. Specialized defects.

5. Neurosis, preventing the child from adjusting himself to the school curriculum.

The author says, "The problem of the dull and backward cases is different from that of the definitely feeble-minded. The backward cases can maintain themselves in society, if they are given an education fitted to their needs and mentality. Their failure to grasp the material taught in the ordinary school shows clearly that they are not receiving the education they need. The ordinary curriculum may be all right for the ordinary child, but these children, back-

ward and feeble-minded, get little benefit from it. They cannot grasp what the teacher is trying to teach them, and as a result they drop farther and farther behind their grades, and become discouraged with their almost constant failures. They hang on to their disagreeable tasks as long as the law compels them, and then drop out to fight life's battles without a training that has fitted them to make a living, and with mentality below the average. In most cases, unless the environment is very simple, failure awaits these cases no less than it does the feeble-minded. The tragedy of these backward cases is that they could have been saved from social failure by the proper training."

The author points out that the problem of backward and retarded children is one which must concern the teacher who deals with the correction of speech disorders. Many children have speech defects because of a defective intelligence and the teacher must be able to judge of the child's intelligence before she can choose the proper method of treatment. The author's conclusion is as follows:

"In every school system, there are from two to five per cent of the children who are not being educated, despite the best endeavors of the teachers. The reasons for this are not simple, but are quite complicated. The problem cannot be dismissed by saying that the child is lazy or that he receives no encouragement at home. Adequately to meet the problem of the backward and retarded child in the school requires the services of a trained psychologist, assisted at times by a competent neurologist who has had experience in dealing with neurotic and backward children. A psychological clinic should be a part of every school system that numbers as many as three or four thousand children. Such a clinic will really save money, for it will take a burden off the teachers and enable them to do more and better work with the normal children. The backward and feeble-minded should receive special training in special classes taught by specially trained teachers, the neurotic and those with specialized defects should be studied and given such treatment as needed. Often the principal is convinced that the child has need of special training but he has no authority to say that the child must be placed in a special class. If there were a trained psychologist to make the examination, the parents would be more likely to abide by the deci-

sion of the expert in mental examination. This mental testing should not consist of the Binet-Simon test alone, but should include as many other tests as may be necessary to form a decision concerning the child's mental ability in language and abstract subjects, as well as his motor control. In this way only can the backward and retarded children be saved from sure suffering and failure. A properly organized psychological clinic and special classes for the training of the backward are as necessary for the school as is medical inspection!"

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*PUBLIC SPEAKING COURSES IN STATE UNIVERSITIES*, By V. A. KETCHAM, Ohio State University, in the *Educational Review*, February, 1917, pages 151-160

After pointing out the growing importance of public speaking courses in state universities and the establishment of separate departments of instruction in this field by the more progressive institutions such as Michigan and Wisconsin the writer says, "In most instances the development of the courses has been especially adapted to that training for citizenship which is the highest function of the state university. The emphasis has been most often placed upon courses designed to train the student to prepare and present original addresses, to speak extempore, and to debate effectively. He is taught to investigate political, social, and economic problems with a view to arriving at definite conclusions and making use of these conclusions when found. He is inspired with confidence by finding that his own conclusions, if based upon facts and sound in logic, are very trustworthy. This point of view cultivates a certain independence of thought which makes for good citizenship." . . . "There can be no surer guarantee of the continuance of democratic government than that any citizen, no matter how humble, may be trained to raise his voice in the councils of the community, state, and nation."

Emphasis is placed upon the part played by the spoken word in the development of our governmental institutions. Many illustrations are cited to show that in every great crisis in our history the orator has sounded the call to civic duty. The men who have been most successful in leading great political and social reforms have all been trained public speakers and most of

them had given especial attention to the art of public address. It is the especial duty of the state university to provide adequate training for those citizens who expect to enter public life for as James Bryce says in his *University and Historical Addresses* the duty of a state university is discharged in "furnishing skilled leaders in political and social movements."

The writer believes that there is a danger that this training for citizenship may be neglected in order to make more room for the material demands of the community. The tendency to emphasize technical courses, especially engineering and agriculture, seems to be retarding the development of liberal arts subjects and public speaking must necessarily suffer with other kindred departments of instruction.

That the opportunity for the properly trained public speaker to exercise an influence in our civic life is greater than at any previous period in our history is shown by the increased number and variety of opportunities opened to him. Not only in our political campaigns and in the speech-requiring professions but in all the activities of modern life have these opportunities multiplied. Good government and civic improvement associations have sprung up and developed until many of them are of national and even international scope. Church and school are making greater demands upon the layman for discussion and debate. Almost all of our great social, business, and professional organizations touch the well-being of the body politic in some aspect of their work. "President Wilson, in a recent address, declared that the discussions and debates held before local organizations of all kinds in every community throughout the land exert an influence upon public opinion which is incalculable."

"The popular cry of the day is—Preparedness. No aspect of this subject is more vital than preparation for citizenship. Much emphasis has been put upon training soldiers to obey and upon providing them with instruments for killing purposes, which training and provision are all that is necessary in an absolute monarchy. But in a democracy these same soldiers are presumed to have a voice in determining under what conditions they shall subject themselves to military discipline and make use of death-dealing instruments and in a matter so vital to them

that training to make effective their voices in matters of state would seem to be of even greater importance than the training for war itself. To argue otherwise is to argue for government by the few instead of the many, for aristocracy instead of democracy."

The importance of training in the art of public address as an effective aid in solving the complex national and international problems which face us is pointed out. "When we contemplate the immensity of this field for work which is open to the properly trained and equipped public speaker and when we consider how much unworthy and inefficient speaking is done by otherwise capable men in the assemblages and councils which determine our public opinion and action we can not longer express surprize at the slowness of our civic and moral progress."

"While public speaking courses have developed until they are playing a vastly more important part in our civic life than is apparent on the surface their usefulness must be greatly augmented if the most vital function of the state university is to be performed."



## NEW BOOKS

*Adenoids and Tonsils.* BY ALGERNON COOLIDGE, M.D.: Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1916. Cloth, price 50 cents.

There was published recently by the Harvard University Press, a short and helpful book, *Adenoids and Tonsils* by Dr. Algernon Coolidge, professor of laryngology in Harvard Medical School.

The teacher of voice and public speaking is often perplexed by the conflicting reports concerning the effects upon the voice and speech of enlarged adenoids and diseased tonsils. In this short brochure can be obtained a precise correct and scientific view of the matter. The author discusses the abnormal conditions of the adenoids and summarizes the matter as follows:

"Adenoids means a disturbance of the adenoid gland. Generally an enlargement of it but sometimes a disease of the tissue. The most frequent harm that it does is to prevent a child from getting the proper amount of air through the nose, and this may cause the child to suffer in many ways. *If the child is suffering from adenoids, they should be removed.*"

In discussing the tonsils the author points out that the exact function of the tonsils is not known but that nature probably gave them to us for a purpose and they should be retained so long as possible. But he says that when a person's tonsils are a menace to health the only sure and satisfactory treatment is to remove them. Authorities agree "that tonsils should be removed for recurring abscesses of the throat, for persistent and enlarged glands of the neck that cannot be accounted for by some other cause, for frequent attacks of tonsillitis, for very large tonsils, and in those cases in which it is suspected that serious constitutional disease is caused by diseases focused in the tonsils."

S. B.





## The Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking

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# THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING

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## THE BETTER SPEECH MOVEMENT IN ALABAMA

CLAUDIA E. CRUMPTON

Girls' Technical Institute, Montevallo

**T**HE Better Speech Movement was introduced to Alabama in April, 1916. At once it was received most cordially throughout the state and had the ready service of all agencies. For these reasons the course of the movement has brought to light many unforeseen possibilities and methods upon which those who are only beginning the movement may build with profit.

The committee in charge realized that first of all there should be established a public sentiment favorable to good habits of speech, a sentiment that would eradicate slovenliness. For this purpose it enlisted the interest of schools, newspapers, business and professional men, women's clubs, etc. The campaign has outstripped its purpose, for it has not merely gone far toward establishing the sentiment desired, but it has laid a foundation for positive, active interest in training for conversational and public speaking. I might say in passing that among the schools, clubs, etc., there has been noted this distinct evolution of interest: (1) interest in eradicating errors in grammar; (2) in gaining distinct enunciation; (3) in studying words; (4) in securing pleasant and properly placed voices; (5) in developing power in speaking.

The committee defined a three-fold end toward which it would work by agitation: correctness, distinct enunciation, pleasant and properly placed voices. The South is afflicted, as most sections are, with extreme carelessness in speech, grammatically speaking. It is the theory of some of us that much is due to

imitation of the negro, conscious and unconscious, and much is to be laid at the door of teaching composition as writing only, and to teaching composition for the all-important force of expression to the neglect of errors. The most pronounced weakness in the speech proper of the South is poor enunciation, due to mere habit, often to timidity. The voices are usually soft; yet there is a tendency among the young people to elevate their voices to the point of harshness—a distinct evidence of the need of training for voice placement and strength. With ends thus defined, the committee launched a vigorous campaign, using for its slogan, "Let everyone use the best speech of which he is capable."

Better Speech Week was established in the schools. It is indicative of the present interest in speech betterment that almost simultaneously and by coincidence, there were observed three Better Speech Weeks, each the first of its kind and similar to the others, these being in New Haven, Connecticut; New York City; Montevallo, Alabama. Last year, in Montevallo, we added the parade feature, closing with a one-act speech play performed in the town square and followed by a talk by Mr. John M. Clapp, Secretary of the American Speech League.

Several schools have mere programs of songs, recitations, talks; others have performances of the kind indicated by the titles "An Animated Grammar," "Tried for the Murder of the King's English," "A Military Campaign for Speech Betterment." One school had a very lively contest from week to week among the classes for the elimination of specified errors. At the end of each week, the class in disgrace was branded with arm-bands which they were to wear for a certain time.

Better Speech Week is conducted now in various ways according to local conditions. Throughout the time clever posters are displayed such as these: boys' putting their shoulders to the wheel "ain't," the German proverb, "The ass sings badly because he pitches his voice too high." The following suggestions for posters, having a few from Alabama, which Miss Alberta Walker used this summer at the University of Virginia, are interesting:

**STOP! THINK! SPEAK!**

**"MEND THY SPEECH A LITTLE**

**LEST IT MAY MAR THY FORTUNE"**

**SPEAK CORRECTLY, DISTINCTLY, PLEASANTLY**

SWALLOWING G'S BAD FOR SPEECH HEALTH  
LET EVERYONE USE THE BEST SPEECH OF WHICH HE IS  
CAPABLE  
BEAUTY AND PURITY OF SPEECH  
WHAT WORD HAVE YOU ADDED TO YOUR VOCABULARY  
TODAY?  
BETTER SPEECH. BETTER JOBS.  
MAKE NO MISTAKES IN GRAMMAR TODAY!  
WATCH YOUR VOWELS!  
THIS IS BETTER SPEECH WEEK, WHAT WILL YOU DO FOR  
IT?  
GET THE DICTIONARY HABIT!  
HOW FAST CAN YOU SAY THIS ENUNCIATING EVERY CON-  
SONANT?

Amidst the mists and coldest frosts,  
With barest wrists and stoutest boasts,  
He thrusts his fists against the posts,  
And still insists he sees the ghosts.

HOW DO YOU PRONOUNCE THESE WORDS?  
Allies, Abdomen, Exquisite, Ordeal, Visor,  
Architect, Mischievous, Address, Presentation.  
(The list of these may be changed each day.)

BETTER SPEECH EVENTUALLY. WHY NOT NOW?  
DO NOT NEGLECT YOUR FINAL CONSONANTS!  
HOW MANY PLEASING VOICES DID YOU HEAR TODAY?  
HE WROTE LIKE AN ANGEL AND TALKED LIKE POOR POLL.  
WARNING! LOOK OUT FOR THE BAD SPEECH GERM! BE  
VACCINATED FOR BETTER SPEECH TODAY!  
THESE ARE THE HOURS THAT COUNT. MEND YOUR  
SPEECH  
WHAT! ANOTHER TIRED THROAT? RELAX!  
GET RICH NOW! HELP YOURSELF TO A RICH VOICE.

Throughout the week and in some places throughout the year, each English class has a speech critic who reports regularly as to mistakes heard from her classmen in and out of class. Much of the English work during the week is devoted to matters of speech. A school in Uvalde, Texas, which used our plans, conducted a program in which a club woman spoke of the value of good speech in social life, and a business man spoke of the value of good speech in the business world.

The parade is most elastic, of course, in possibility. The posters of the week are used and banners of various kinds are

added. Local popular groups, such as the Boy Scouts and the Camp Fire Girls, may be used to advantage. In the Montevallo parade we had the Boy Scouts escorting Mr. Bad English in shackles with the banner, "Mr. Bad English Must Go." One group we used, which might suggest the development of a very effective speech pageant, was a group of girls in costume to represent the several countries furnishing the sources of our language. The Texas school which I mentioned above, used as one group the domestic science pupils in uniform with the banner, "We are making a perfect stew about Better Speech." Dramatization of mistakes and various phases of speech is a popular feature of Speech Week. For instance, five girls represent by tags the letters of "going." The last letter is cast off and is ever begging to be taken back among the other letters. At the University of Virginia, several pupils were made ill by swallowing their "g's" and were cured only by the services of the speech doctor. Incidentally we have found that this dramatization is an excellent means for beginning creative dramatic writing. As an outcome of this interest we held in our school last year a very lively contest for writing one-act plays bearing directly and indirectly upon speech.

In some instances, Better Speech Week is looked upon as childish and altogether too undignified for serious purposes. True, in some cases it may prove trivial and foolish; yet it has gained results that "all the king's horses" of training have not been able to produce. At Montevallo I had the following experience which speaks for itself. About four years ago at a home economics conference, some of our newly graduated students talked and made disgraceful blunders in speech that we had hammered upon in class. Last spring our sophomores who, since our curriculum has been raised, correspond in grade to the graduates mentioned above, prepared alone and conducted a public exercise. There was much talking and there was not one mistake in speech made.

Now with all this agitation, we of the committee have tried to avoid primness in speech and to remember the wise caution in "Self-Cultivation in English"—that we rate expressiveness more highly than correctness. We of Montevallo were pleased last spring because poor English did not distress our pupils when a lecturer came who, according to Irvin Cobb, because she is a genius, needs no grammar.



As effective as Better Speech Week is, it should be the part of a large plan which cares for the speech situation throughout the year and works constructively toward big ends. Many schools have the Speech Council and the Speech Cabinet. The Council includes active members, those who promise to improve their own speech habits and to welcome every opportunity to speak in public, and associate members, those who make only the first pledge. The Cabinet is composed of the Council officers and representatives from the English classes, and it is responsible for plans to keep the speech movement in operation.

The newspapers of the state have been most generous in their support of the movement, one paper having given us a whole page for the subject. Indeed there has been more of available space than the committee could find time to use. This coöperation is due, we think, to the interest of the Alabama daily papers in all that makes for betterment of conditions in the state, and to the timeliness of our agitation.

The Federation of Women's Clubs and the state Farmers' Association have both endorsed the movement and other such bodies are ready to act as soon as the committee can attend their meetings. The Women's clubs have been actively coöperative for carrying out the suggestions of the speech committee: 1, that they see that the home atmosphere is favorable to good speech; 2, that they have classes in spoken English established among all persons out of school, especially among those whose work calls for much speaking; 3, that they conduct simple surveys to find the status of speech in communities, these surveys to be used by the state committee as a basis for investigation and procedure. The clubs are using various methods. Some devote one meeting a month, others devote ten minutes of each program to speech. For this purpose the clubs use programs planned by the speech committee and such materials as the speech leaflets of Mr. Dale Carnegie of the New York Y. M. C. A. The Montgomery Federation of Clubs has pledged itself to working out the speech problem among the business employees of the city. They find that the business people are interested not in speech-training itself, but in speech-training as a feature of courses in salesmanship. The shifting of employees makes the employers hesitant about doing much of this kind of work. The Montgomery women are considering the idea of advocating the city's having a series

of lectures of the type desired by the merchants, and following them by offering very strong courses in speech in the Y. W. C. A. and Y. M. C. A. Finding capable teachers of speech is the problem that we meet here as elsewhere.

Now our speech committee realizes that agitation for speech betterment is only the beginning of the movement, that instruction must follow in the wake of the interest aroused. Alabama is trying to prepare for meeting this demand. The committee is advocating the establishment in every large summer school intensely practical courses in speech for teachers. In advising those who study this subject out of the state, the committee is having the aid of the national speech leaders who recommend the better summer courses in the larger colleges and universities. In securing capable teachers for instruction in Alabama, it is also looking to the national leaders. The English Association is about to issue a bulletin which, the committee hopes, will aid those who are interested in placing instruction in speech in the schools.

It is easy to establish a sentiment for our purposes, we find; it is not easy to secure teachers who are capable of giving courses of a practical character, of the non-"elocutionary" type. According to our experience, the time is ripe for a movement toward speech betterment. Its eventual success will depend to a great extent upon the readiness of the leading institutions to solve the problem of furnishing capable teachers of speech.

## AN ADVENTURE IN PHILOSOPHY

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EVERETT LEE HUNT

Huron College

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**W**E are making discoveries! We didn't know just what we were going to discover, or where it would be found. But we had made up our minds that something ought to be discovered; and a new theory, like wrong or evil, is sure to be found if you really look for it.

And our discoveries are coming in the fulness of time. Surely it were lamentable if, when dynasties are being dethroned, when morality is being subjected to a revaluation, when form is being banished from music, painting, and poetry, when education is in chaos, when philosophy is repudiating not only the time-honored solutions of questions that have been with us always, but even the questions themselves—surely it were too much to expect that we should refrain from revolutions. Our self-respect demands them. Discoveries must come! And they come! Soon we shall have so many problems exclusively our own, and a terminology so adequate that, like the German professor quoted by Paulsen, “we can go so far that in a couple of sentences we can put ourselves where nobody can follow us.” And then we shall be safe.

Randolph Bourne in an essay on Friendship says, “I do not spark automatically, but must have other minds to rub up against, and strike from them by friction the spark that will kindle my thoughts.” And we all remember Macaulay's statement about the peg to hang his essay on. So I would not have this construed as an attack upon any discovery or discoverers. But I find myself reflecting upon the writings of the contributors to *THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL*. They stimulate me. And sparks, if they come at all, come by friction. If to the serious minded my reflections seem flippant it is not because I do not regard the contributions as serious matters, but because I hold with Renan that “good humour is a philosophic state of mind; it seems to say to Nature that we take her no more seriously than she takes us. One should always speak of philosophy with a smile.”

When Quintilian attempted a theory and technique of oratory, not having had graduate work in psychology, he was compelled to base his system on Roman life and customs. Oratorical training was not so much a course of study as a way of living. And he doubtless labored under the impression that he was dealing with concepts that were fundamental. The medieval schoolmen, thinking logic to have several advantages over mere life, certainly thought they were deep down among the fundamentals when they propounded their logical formulæ. The exponents of the Delsarte method, with their triangles reminding one of Plato and the Pythagorean cults, were surely getting at the bottom of things. The legal mind that makes mutually exclusive definitions of conviction and persuasion is not aware that it is doing anything peculiar or abnormal. He is not "splitting hairs on the temples of truth"; he is making definitions that arise from the nature of things—assuming that things have a nature, which is dangerous. Wearied by all these artificial and superficial distinctions, Miss Yost proclaims that the real fundamentals are to be found in the field of sociology, and that distinctions not arising from the social situation are antiquated in oratory. And now Professor Woolbert, from his psychological laboratory, announces that "since mental processes can be described and explained (I have yet to learn of anything 'explained' by science) only in terms of psychology, the solution of the difficulty is to be found in psychology alone." So we move on to psychology in our search for fundamentals.

I myself am not quite so sure where the "fundamentals" will finally be discovered. In fact I am inclined to think "there ain't none." But that answer never satisfies, for someone is always asking "what is it that ain't?" And when we get to arguing over what the "fundamentals" are or where we can locate them, we have fallen among philosophers, and they spring up and choke us. Believing that fundamentals in anything lead us straight into philosophy, I venture to follow the elucidations from the sociologist and the psychologist with a plea for the philosopher. Were I an idealist with the fine scorn of science indulged in by the late Hugo Munsterberg I should meet the claims of the students in other fields with a vigorous pronouncement of the supremacy of philosophy. But believing as John Dewey has said in "The Recovery of Philosophy" that "Philosophy will have to sur-

render all pretension to be peculiarly concerned with ultimate reality, with *the* real object," I make no such claim. On the contrary the suggestion that I should take from philosophy would be that any claim of any one branch of learning to be final or "fundamental" should be very carefully examined. Instead of offering a contribution from philosophy, then, I merely attempt a warning.

I do not quarrel with Miss Yost or Professor Woolbert in their desire to do away with misleading distinctions. I hope they will bury many of them. But there is a habit of mind, as old as philosophy itself, which, when it sees the unreality of many supposed differences and distinctions, attempts to force everything into an all-embracing unity. It is this type of thinking that I find in Professor Woolbert's statement of the problem of belief and action: "In what terms can you state the unity so that there will be no omissions?" What I fear is that this cannot be done. Professor Woolbert's statement is much like the now largely abandoned attempt of philosophers to find some one generality of which everything in the universe is an example. Of course, if you are bent on synthesizing, you can put belief and action—or most anything else—together. You can go as far as Hegel and declare that you cannot get the whole truth until you have reconciled all contradictions in the Absolute. Or if you are fond of analysis and are as clever as the neo-realists at it, you can analyze anything until there is nothing left. You can even analyze motion into its component parts without affecting the movement. But all this might involve some delay in making clear to freshmen one's position on the conviction and persuasion controversy. Professor Woolbert says the issue is: "Are belief and action two different entities, or are they one and the same thing?" I confess that I am as unable to locate the issue in any one place as Professor Woolbert is to find a real dividing line between belief and action. If I were disposed to be argumentative I might accept his monism and then say that the dualism is not between belief and action, but between theory, or a theoretical attitude of mind, and Professor Woolbert's "response." Leslie Stephen, in "An Agnostic's Apology" says, "The man has most faith, in the sense in which faith represents a real force, whose convictions are most favorable to energetic action, and is freest from the doubts which paralyze the will in the great moments of

life." Now if we take from this a definition of belief as "a conviction favorable to action," then Professor Woolbert's destruction of the distinction between belief and action is easy. You can go further with him and say that thinking is acting, though it may not be the "response" you as a speaker desire. But what shall we say of that thinking which is not believing, but is theorizing? Even the man in the street knows that theorizing is inimical to action. But if theorizing is thinking, and theorizing destroys action, then we have again fallen into a dualism between thought and action. If this dualism exists in the audience, the speaker must overcome this before he can get his coveted "response." But to harmonize the conflicting elements of doubt into "conviction favorable to action" is essentially a logical process; and the motivation of the belief after it is secured is surely a different process. Thus I have accepted Professor Woolbert's monism, but by shifting the issue to theory and belief I have discovered another dualism. Your monist might embarrass me by asking me to locate the boundaries between theory and belief, and thus cast a doubt on the validity of the distinction. But my point is, if you are after distinctions you can make them almost anywhere. Or if you are bent upon destroying them, you can analyze them away at any time.

Thus by indulging two opposite habits of mind, the debate might be kept up *ad nauseam* or *ad infinitum*, according to one's enthusiasm and endurance. With equal facility the psychologist finds reasons for synthesizing when he wants to destroy old distinctions, and reasons for analyzing when he wants to make new ones of his own. The issue is not so much between the new and old distinctions as it is between the mental processes. And by psychological arguments I suppose either process might be proved right or wrong. For myself, I prefer to drop the notion that there is anything in the situation which compels me to do either. I have to confess with an eighteenth century writer that I use my logic to find reasons for what I want to do. Therefore I decline to take seriously the bonds either of the traditional terms or of revolutionary discoveries. They can be equally tyrannical. Anatole France in his "Revolt of the Angels" presents a well-worn truth cleverly when he pictures Satan, after overcoming God, as taking on all the characteristics of God. Using a term of William James's I would accuse all who place emphasis on

terminology—a terminology hoary with age, or a terminology in the latest and most approved “terms of stimulus-response, object-subject, or environment attitude”—of “vicious intellectualism.”

This demand for a restatement of rhetoric in terms of psychology reminds one of Aristotle’s observations on the similarity of grammar and philosophy. And yet even though a child, every time he diagrams a sentence, makes enough philosophical assumptions to keep wise men debating eternally, we do not try to state his grammar for him in terms of philosophy. This attempt to find “terms in which you can state the unity so there will be no omissions” is so typical of the monistic habit of mind that I cannot refrain from quoting William James again, this time from the *Pluralistic Universe*.

“All philosophers have conceived of the whole world after the analogy of some particular feature of it which has particularly captivated their attention. Thus the theists take their cue from manufacture, the pantheists from growth. . . . Some thinkers follow suggestions from human life, and treat the universe as if it were essentially a place in which ideals are realized. Others are struck more by its lower feature and for them brute necessities express its character better. All follow one analogy or another; and all the analogies are with some one or other of the universe’s subdivisions. Everyone is nevertheless prone to claim that his conclusions are the only logical ones and that they are necessities of universal reason, they being all the while, at bottom, accidents more or less of personal vision which had far better be avowed as such.”

Not only does the attempt to compel teachers of Public Speaking to borrow their terms from psychology seem to be an example of this “personal vision,” but the attempt to determine which particular psychological terms shall be used seems to exaggerate the importance of terminology and to make again the mistake of assuming that certain ideas are inherently “fundamental.” In a footnote on page 254 of the July *QUARTERLY JOURNAL* Professor Woolbert says that action as “response” seems to him a more “fundamental” word than Professor Winans’ key word of Attention. Now I will admit that from Professor Woolbert’s point of view it may be a more general concept, but to honor it with the term more “fundamental” is to give it a fictitious value. Whether or not it is more “fundamental” depends on who is using it

and for what purpose. Thus to refer to William James again, to me the "fundamental" thing about the paper on which I am writing is that it will receive my ideas (if no one else will), while to another man its chemical properties might be "fundamental."

When you attempt to isolate and mark out certain concepts as in themselves "fundamental," you are dealing with abstractions. As John Dewey has somewhere said, whenever you abstract a principle from a situation, there will come a time when that situation and that principle are in conflict. The futility of the attempt to insist on "fundamental concepts" is further shown by the quickness with which any term acquires a strictly limited technical meaning unintelligible to one not familiar with the subject matter. Thus to say that the late Josiah Royce was an idealist and that President Wilson is an idealist is to make statements widely different in their significance. And it would add nothing to the knowledge of the much abused man in the street to say that the notion of idealism was fundamental in interpreting the two men.

Whatever thinking is done clearly and definitely, if it bears labels and technical terms, will be borrowed and used blunderingly by lesser men. Which, of course, is but to repeat "the letter killeth!" Where is there so much misunderstanding as among the philosophers who spend their time making definitions? This is not to minimize the importance of exact thinking, but it is to emphasize the vanity of the hope in words, it is to emphasize the necessity of eschewing abstractions and of keeping to the concrete and particular. As many possibilities for abuse lie in the word "response" as in "conviction." Who has not suffered from "efficiency," "service," "uplift," "community welfare," in the mouths of bores?

Any closed system is sure to meet this fate. It is easy to see the inadequacies of old systems and terminologies because we have transcended them in our own experience. And when we get a system that pretty completely expresses our own experience we imagine it complete.

Again I repeat that these remarks are not attacks upon Miss Yost or Professor Woolbert. Their service is of incalculable value. But now that teachers of public speaking are awaking to the joy of scholarship or to the stern fact that they must become scholars, the science of speech, if such there be, will be formed



largely by analogies from other fields. In this process of building up a new content, I have only these suggestions to offer:

(1) No one science can rightfully claim to be fundamental in shaping the concepts of public speaking.

(2) No one formula can be discovered which will express the whole process.

(3) Distinctions and definitions are by their very nature little more than half truths, and their inadequacies can never be remedied by a new terminology.

## CORRECTION OF SPEECH DEFECTS IN A PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

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**E**XPERIMENTAL studies within the past five years have established as a fact the theory that the majority of individuals have balanced mental abilities for all school subjects; and this fact is the basis for the formation of curriculums in public school systems. Because they possess this inherent correlation of mental capacities, the greater number of children can easily adjust themselves not only to the school curriculum, but also to the ordinary affairs of life; and for both social and economical reasons these are the children who have received first consideration from educational systems. Except where the variation from type has been great as in the case of the deaf, blind, feeble-minded, epileptic, etc., but little, if any, attention has been given to those individuals who are illy adjusted to the program of school, and of life.

But the problem of individual adjustment is now beginning to make its claim. Its greatest demand for recognition is probably coming not from within the school system, but from without. It is a social, psychological, and medical problem and is beginning to be discussed from these three viewpoints.

Doctor Bronner, in her book, "Psychological Abilities and Disabilities," speaking of the failure of school systems to meet the needs of the children who deviate from the average, says, "Educational dissatisfaction is a very frequent beginning of what may develop into a long career of misdeeds. From our studies of delinquents, we believe that misunderstanding and neglect of children with particular abilities and disabilities leads to truancy and thence to consequences the seriousness of which is too little appreciated."

It is good for our school systems to be thus criticised by a trained psychologist and social worker of Dr. Bronner's experience.

There are criticisms and reforms coming from within educational circles, too. Many of our best educators now have for their ideal a school system so elastic as to meet the needs of all the children, not just the majority. I am very glad to be working with a Board of Education who possess this ideal. Grand Rapids is making an effort to understand and correct the special disabilities of all children in her schools.

It is true, as Dr. Bronner reminds us, that many questions of particular abilities and disabilities cannot yet be solved, but psychologists, physicians, college professors and teachers trained for special work are all devoting time and study to the various phases of the problem; and we have the right to feel hopeful that these children who are "normal except for special defects," or, "sub-normal in all but a special ability" will soon receive careful scientific diagnosis and training.

The disability in particular which possibly interferes with individual adjustment more than any other except the very marked defects referred to above is that of a speech defect. A child with a speech defect is not only held back in school because of his inability to express himself, but is also poorly adjusted to social and economic conditions when he is through with school.

Dr. Wile, of the New York City Board of Education, in his article, "The Economic Value of Speech Correction," says, "The economic cost of speech defect is registered in the limitation of the occupations that are available for individuals who have speech delinquencies. The more pronounced the defect, the more limited the field of activity. Another economic gain to be secured through speech correction is the prevention of industrial accidents."

In discussing the subject further from the moral and also economical aspect, Dr. Wile says, "The importance of discouragement, anxiety, family distress, embarrassment, diffidence, and shyness upon the development of high moral character cannot be estimated. Wherefore among delinquents, speech defects are noted with greater frequency than a normal population. If speech correction can prevent children from moral degeneration, its economic usefulness is enhanced."

A few of the medical profession, too, are beginning to give serious consideration to the subject of speech defects. Dr. Hud-

son Makuen of Philadelphia has worked on this problem for several years; and the most valuable contribution we have, at least the most noteworthy one written by an American, is the book, "Stuttering and Lispings," by Dr. Scripture, formerly of Columbia University. Dr. Blanton of the University of Wisconsin is also doing a very valuable work along this line.

Dr. James Sonnett Green realizes the importance of speech correction and treats it in an article which he read before the New York meeting of the National Teachers' Association, 1917. He gives the literary history of speech defects and discusses the pathological condition which accompanies this disability. He says, "Efficiency and ease seem to go together as characteristic of mental strength and economy. 'Living at the tips of one's nerves' through an impediment of speech tends to develop vicious circles of nervous instability, resulting in an increase of criminals, prostitutes, and general failures." He concludes with the question:

"May we not hope that through the coöperation of education and medicine in the task of curing disorders of speech the new generation will go forth better equipped for the battle of life?"

The prevalence of speech defects is not generally realized. Conradi gathered statistics in a number of cities, surveying in all about 87,400 children. "Of these, two and forty-six hundredths had speech defects, and eighty-seven hundredths of one per cent stuttered, and one and fifty-nine hundredths of one per cent had other speech defects." Dr. Wallin of St. Louis examined 89,077 children and found that 2.7% had well-marked speech defects. His statistics show 1.6% of lispers, 7% of stutterers, .4 of one per cent with some other form of speech defect.

Dr. Blanton, of the University of Wisconsin, visited seventeen of the Madison schools and surveyed 4,862 children. The following percentages were found:

|                                      |       |
|--------------------------------------|-------|
| Total number of speech defects ..... | 5.69% |
| Stutterers .....                     | .72%  |
| Lispers .....                        | 3.27% |
| Miscellaneous .....                  | 1.71% |

Dr. Blanton makes this explanation: "The percentage of stutterers, .72, is practically the same as that found by Wallin,

.7, but the percentage of lispers and miscellaneous defects is about three times as large. . . . This is due, I think, to the fact that the figures were gathered in the St. Louis survey by a questionnaire, and many of the cases of thick and indistinct speech and cases of lisping were not reported by the class teacher, not accustomed to reporting speech defects."

If we are going to handle this problem, it is of vital importance that we organize school instruction in the elementary grades for speech correction; for speech becomes habituated by the age of pubescence. After that age it is a difficult matter to correct a disability of speech.

There are now two methods in practice for the formation of speech classes in the public schools in this country. One segregates the children with speech defects for all their school instruction; the other segregates them for their lesson in speech only and they then return to their regular classes for instruction in other subjects. The latter, I think, is the better plan. It seems to me unwise to segregate children whose faculties are normal, or almost so, but who are suffering from any particular defect which makes them unusual. I feel that it is better to help them re-adjust themselves in a normal environment. Of course, where the defect is extreme it is sometimes necessary to segregate for at least a time, but this should be the exception, not the rule. We have found only one case of speech defect in Grand Rapids that we thought so extreme as to need the attention of a special teacher of speech for all of his instruction.

Classes for the correction of speech defects were organized in the Grand Rapids schools last year. The mechanical arrangement was as follows: twelve classes were arranged for in five different schools with a half hour a day for each class. The children were grouped according to age, kind of defect, etc., and a teacher with special training for the correction of speech was sent from school to school to give the instruction.

Our plans for this year are practically the same as for last excepting that we have two more special teachers and will be able to reach a greater number of schools and give more time to individual cases.

There are two different classes of speech defects. First, those due to organic causes; second, those which have a mental cause and which we call functional defects.

The chief organic defect is lisping. This is often caused by a mal-occlusion of the teeth. If there is a decided protrusion of the lower jaw, the lower teeth will come in front of the upper when the teeth are closed. With this condition of teeth we almost always have lisping or imperfect speech. The same is also true if the upper teeth protrude too far in front of the lower. The service of an orthodontist is needed to correct this condition of the teeth, but the speech can be much improved without orthodontia.

As a result of adenoids, many children have a high palatal arch which also causes lisping and imperfect speech.

Cleft palate, thick and imperfectly developed tongue, diphtheritic paralysis of the soft palate are all organic causes of indistinct and nasal speech which can be greatly benefited by a skilled speech teacher. Of course a cleft palate must be operated on before speech instruction can be of help.

Under the head of functional speech disorders we have stuttering, neurotic lisping, and hysterical aphasia. The most important of these is stuttering. There have been many interesting and unique theories advanced as to the cause of stuttering, and many fake schools established for its cure. Appelt, in regard to therapeutics, claims that the occasional success of all these different schools is due to the part that auto-suggestion plays, and that the cure can only be temporary.

Appelt's own "cure" is due partly to auto-suggestion, but more directly to psycho-analysis and re-adjustment. He believes the cause to be a mental conflict and claims that by uncovering the complex, the speech impediment will disappear.

This, too, is Scripture's theory as to cause, and almost all of the speech specialists in this country follow him. But Gutzman and a few of the specialists abroad hold to the theory of a physical cause.

In our treatment of stuttering and other functional speech disorders, we follow Dr. Blanton's outline. Attention is given first, to vocal re-education. Exercises are given for correct breathing. If the diaphragm and other muscles concerned in breathing can be made to act correctly and easily until this action becomes habituated, a strong resistance to emotional disturbance is formed. A certain amount of drill in corrective phonetics is also given. Second, we try to find the emotional cause, and, if possible, remove it; but if this cannot be done, we attempt to

change the individual's attitude towards it. As Dr. Blanton says, "Although the facts of life cannot be changed, the meaning of them may be; and with a change of meaning, the emotional reaction to them differs." Our aim is to help the individual bring to light the conflict that is causing his disorder and better adjust himself to reality. Third, we give consideration to physical hygiene. It is necessary that the patient have proper food, the right sleeping arrangements, etc., and often necessary that he have medical attention.

During the school year of 1916-17, we had under instruction 107 children and obtained the following results:

|                          | <i>Normal</i> | <i>Almost Normal</i> | <i>Improved</i> | <i>Total</i> |
|--------------------------|---------------|----------------------|-----------------|--------------|
| Stuttering .....         | 8             | 10                   | 18              | 36           |
| Organic Lispings .....   | 12            | 4                    | 3               | 19           |
| Negligent Lispings ..... | 24            | 5                    |                 | 29           |
| Neurotic Lispings .....  | 3             | 4                    | 5               | 12           |
| Nasality .....           | 3             |                      |                 | 3            |
| Miscellaneous .....      | 3             | 1                    |                 | 4            |
| Indistinct .....         | 2             | 1                    | 1               | 4            |
|                          | —             | —                    | —               | —            |
|                          | 55            | 25                   | 27              | 107          |

This year we will have under instruction of our special teachers, about 250 children, and in addition to this we hope to work for correction and prevention of speech defects in general by giving instruction in voice culture and corrective phonetics to all of the children of the primary grades. This work will be done by the grade teachers under the supervision of the speech department. It marks an era in the training for correct speech as it aims to set the habits of normal speech at a period in which the child is undergoing great stress. This work will follow the outline given by Dr. Blanton and adapted to the use of the pre-school kindergarten and primary grades by Margaret Gray Blanton and Miss Carrie Diebold.

## SOME NEGLECTED ASPECTS OF PUBLIC SPEAKING<sup>1</sup>

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**F**IFTY per cent of public speaking is futile, and the other fifty per cent not nearly so effective as it might be, largely because speakers fail to keep in mind that public speaking is an art. Its purpose is to affect a given audience in a given way. When a sculptor carves, he has in mind to create a certain form which shall have a very definite meaning to the onlooker; but it is the supreme fault of the great majority of public speakers that they are prone to ignore the effect to be produced upon the audience. When a salesman goes forth to sell, there is only one test of his efficiency: his sales. No excuse is accepted, that he did not have the time, or that people did not have the money, or he did not have the kind of goods that were wanted. He must sell the goods or lose his position.

Now, a speaker is a salesman for an idea, and unless the people accept his idea, his speech is a failure. It may have cost him great effort, it may be full of erudition, it may have been splendidly delivered; but it was a failure if it did not get the results he wanted.

I am taking it for granted that the average speaker understands something of unity, logic, variety, etc., in speech making, and am therefore confining myself to what are, I think, three aspects of public speaking which, if more carefully regarded than they are, would greatly improve a speaker's efficiency.

### THE ENDS OR PURPOSES

*First:* a speaker must set before his mind clearly what he wants his speech to accomplish.

He may desire merely to instruct, by which I mean to make clear a condition, an argument, a problem. True, he may desire to instruct the audience in order that later they shall do. But in

<sup>1</sup>Delivered at Speakers' Training Camp for Education in Patriotic Service and Conference of Organizations Engaged in Patriotic Education, Chautauqua, N. Y., July 4, 1917.



order to avoid confusion, I am insisting at this time on clearness of expression for its own sake.

What is it to be clear? It is to make an audience see as I see, and to make them know that they see. This sounds very much like a platitude, but thousands of sentences, paragraphs, and sometimes whole addresses, fail in their effectiveness because they do not get into the auditor's experience. Many speakers without the audience sense indulge themselves in long, long, long sentences, or involved sentences, or in diversions, or foreign phrases, or scientific and philosophic terms, with audiences totally unprepared to follow them. And the speaker wonders why his "effort" failed.

*Second:* sometimes one's end is more than clearness: it is to convince. Now the speaker's task becomes more difficult, for he has to overcome ignorance, prejudice, lethargy. Speakers must never forget that belief cannot be compelled. We believe or we do not believe independently of our will power. We may *will* to believe all we please, but our logic must be satisfied, or we cannot believe, no matter how good our intentions are. The speaker must never forget, then, that there are obstacles to belief, and that these obstacles must be overcome before the auditor believes. It is not enough to say, "you all know that Germany has been planning for many years to dominate the world": you must prove it up to the hilt. Too many speakers indulge in broad general illustrations, and wonder why they are unconvincing. It is not the fault of the auditors, but of the speaker. If I wish to prove the disloyalty of the German press of America, I must quote from this press, from a large number of papers printed in German in America, selected for their importance, and from all parts of the country. The audience know what disloyalty is in a certain realm, and when I have quoted at length, from many American papers printed in German all over the country, excerpts of a certain kind, the audience with or against its own will, is convinced of disloyalty.

*Third:* a speaker wants an audience to do something: to subscribe for a Liberty Bond, to donate something to the Red Cross Fund, to enlist in the regular army. Now, there is only one test of this speaker: does he sell the bonds, does he get the subscriptions, or does he get enlistments? A speaker may be clear and convincing, but unless he gets action from the audience, his

speech might as well not have been delivered. By way of parenthesis I may say that a speaker cannot always hope for immediate action following his speech. He may be content to bring his audience to a point where they say, "We will think about your proposition," or "we will talk to you about this again." Well, for that particular day, *that* was the kind of action the speaker was trying to get. A volume might be written on appeals for action, and I have only a few minutes. But I should like to bring home to speakers that action may be obtained through appeals to the affections, cupidity, vanity, tastes, etc. My work for today is done when I have brought out the need of a careful study of the end to be attained, and that a speaker must and may find through the suggestions I have enumerated an avenue through which to make his appeal that action may follow. Most speakers stumble into their good things instead of gathering every possible bit of material that bears upon the subject of their discourse and then choosing what is most likely to help attain the end in view.

#### THE AUDIENCE

. So much for the first neglected factor: the End in View. A second neglected factor is that of the audience. What is clear to one audience may be obscure to another. An argument that may make a powerful appeal to one man may be meaningless to another, and that which would beget action in one man may prove deterrent with another. If I had to put the whole doctrine into a few words, I should say that every word, every argument, every illustration, every anecdote, every appeal should be carefully weighed in the light of the kind of audience, to whom it is to be presented. Will the audience see this? Will they be led to believe through this argument? Will they be led to do because of this statement or through this appeal?

To one audience the fact that Abraham Lincoln set aside the habeas corpus act will have little or no meaning, while to another it might be proof beyond question that at times he acted as an autocrat. If a speaker believes it is necessary for an audience to know that Lincoln was an autocrat (the people love Lincoln, and feel that he could do no wrong, and that if he acted in an autocratic way, then, let us say for argument's sake, certain acts of President Wilson termed autocratic become justifiable), then he must select from many of Lincoln's autocratic acts that one or those which the audience will soonest recognize as autocratic.

An audience of enthusiastic followers will demand far less of a leader than will an audience with contrary opinions. A prejudiced audience need a radically different speech from an audience favorably inclined and whether the audience are rich or poor, laborers or capitalists, men or women, all these are factors in public speaking of vital consequence and yet all too often neglected.

#### TIME LIMIT

Third and finally: the element of time receives all too little attention. Speakers forget that time spent in an unnecessary introduction must be taken off of the conclusion. Every unnecessary word, every unnecessary reminiscence, every unnecessary diversion, is not alone bad in itself (in that it diverts attention, no matter how interesting, or funny, or dramatic it may be), but stands in the way of something better. (For effective speaking is a continual search, an unending search, for the best word, the best argument, the best illustration, and the best motive that impels to action?) If, then, one is limited in his time, he is driven to select, and it would mean the salvation of hundreds of casual speakers and thousands of ministers if they were absolutely limited to ten minutes for their speeches or sermons. Six hundred seconds, and not one second grace; about fourteen or fifteen hundred words! The world is full of great short speeches. I doubt very much whether any parable requires more than ten minutes to speak, and certainly they are good speeches, and convincing speeches. The world's greatest lyrics seldom run over three or four minutes, and more than that, there are innumerable examples of short speeches which were effective. What more could Lincoln have said in his Gettysburg speech, considering his purpose, and his audience? Garfield's famous speech, containing the words, "God reigns, and the Government still lives at Washington" accomplished its purpose in a few sentences. The first part of Beecher's well-known Manchester speech was a speech in itself, the purpose of which was to get a hearing for his longer speech, and he accomplished his end in thirty seconds.

It is because we do not appreciate the value of words, to say nothing of time, that most of us talk on and on and on, content with anything short of absolute failure. The chief value to the public speaker in having his time limited is that he is compelled to study his audience carefully, to make up his mind defi-

nitely as to his purpose, and then to choose that material which is best calculated to help him attain his end.

#### THE EXPERIENCE

In the campaign in which we are engaged the stake is enormous. The speaking, therefore, is not to be entrusted to hands which, though ever so willing, are not expert. We want people who are modelers and sculptors, who can mold public opinion, who can present clearly and convincingly the great facts of these enormous times, and bring about a homogeneity of public opinion and public action. We must not only make clear and convince and get action from the audience we are addressing, but should never forget that these may in turn become propagandists in their homes, on the street, and in their places of business.

#### THE LIBERTY LOAN

We have just finished three speaking campaigns: The Liberty Bond, the Red Cross, and the "70,000 Enlistment" campaign. Let me discuss very briefly, in the light of these three campaigns, the principles I have been expounding. I was closely connected with the bureau that provided speakers for the moving picture theaters. The speakers were limited to four minutes and, be it said to their credit, they did remarkably effective work in those four minutes. After two or three days' experience we learned that the obstacles in our way were largely those of ignorance. The audience, therefore, had to be told what a bond was, how good a U. S. Government bond was, that it could be purchased on installments as low as a dollar a week, that it was hypothecable. We found all this enlightenment could be given in from sixty to ninety seconds. Then we had to get the audience to believe that the Government had actual need of the money; and then, induce them to buy. But after all, since we were asking only for a loan, the task was not very difficult, and the results in the national wide campaign showed that the people, once understanding the meaning of the Liberty Loan, were glad to invest in it.

#### THE RED CROSS

In the Red Cross campaign the problem was more difficult. There, too, we had to explain what the Red Cross movement meant; to explain the thousand and one services the Red Cross

performed for our allies and for our own boys. One very large obstacle in the way was the belief that the Government should appropriate the money. And we found that when we told the audience frankly that the Government might have appropriated the money, but that if it had the people would have been deprived of the glorious opportunity of patriotic service, the response was instantaneous and enthusiastic. I am sure, however, that if the general public had been better informed in detail of the pressing need for contributions, we should have raised \$500,000,000 instead of \$125,000,000. To my mind the slogan "Fight or Give" was futile, because the needs, the purposes of the Red Cross were not clear. We were asking for money, and people do not give up much of that unless deeply stirred.

#### ENLISTMENT

But the call for 70,000 volunteers will, unless I am mistaken, fall on deaf ears. Please remember, this is prophecy and the prophet may be put to shame. But I'll take a chance and give my reasons. Our press and our speakers are not convincing. A few weeks ago we were told that the volunteer system was faulty and we were convinced the selective draft was the only fair method of getting soldiers, so we voted enthusiastically for it. Now we ask for volunteers and are implying that those who don't volunteer are slackers. "Don't wait until you are drafted," we say, "Be a man," etc. Again, we say that those who enlist will be considered part of the quota of the state in which they enlist. Note the unconvincingness of that. First we say that the volunteer system is unfair, and then we ask that a man who has only one chance in six or eight or ten to be drafted shall volunteer and so release someone from service who would otherwise be called.

Further, we have advanced no argument except "Pershing calls you" or "Your country needs you." We are failing utterly to show the need of immediate voluntary enlistment. Those who have registered say, "The draft will begin shortly. I am ready and glad to serve if I am called; but I am not ready to take another man's place." And is he not right? Haven't we been educating him to this mental attitude?

If this were France in August, 1914, or the North in 1861, the case would be different, because the danger of delay would be clear. We are not asking for a loan of money; not for a gift of

money but for a man's life, and before he gives that he has a right to know all the whys, and the campaign, worthy as it is, so far as I have been able to study it, has utterly failed to supply those "whys."

# ORAL EXPRESSION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

Department of Education Bulletin, 1917, No. 2

## X. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ORAL EXPRESSION

### I. THE GENERAL PURPOSE

**T**HE general purpose of teaching oral expression in the schools is to make possible in the lives of the people an accurate, forceful, living speech which shall be adequate for ordinary intercourse and capable of expressing the thoughts and emotions of men and women in other relations of life. Recognizing the fact that the impulses to converse, to sing, to narrate, to picture, and to portray (mimic and dramatize) are racial traits of long standing and that the ability to be effective and interesting in these forms of expression is of enduring social importance, it becomes the task of the teacher to provide incentive and occasion for the normal exercise of these impulses, and to free the channels of expression by establishing right habits of thought and by developing the organs of speech. It is likewise natural for man to enjoy in others excellence and skill in speech and portrayal, while the cultivation of the auditory taste and the dramatic sense enhances the enjoyment of these forms of art. Such enjoyment it is the privilege and function of the school to promote.

The fulfillment of this aim involves (1) occasions impelling the pupil to the natural use of his powers of expression, (2) an effective point of view on the part of the teacher, (3) command by the pupil of the elements of effective expression, and (4) co-operation of all teachers in demanding the constant use of good oral expression.

1. Occasions impelling the pupil to the natural use of his powers of expression constitute the key to success in teaching oral expression. The teacher should help the individual pupil to select topics in which he has genuine interest and upon which he

<sup>1</sup>This is part 10 in full of the bulletin on "REORGANIZATION OF ENGLISH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS," which is a "Report by the National Joint Committee on English representing the commission on the reorganization of secondary education of the National Education Association and the National Council of Teachers of English," Compiled by James Fleming Hosis, Chairman of the committee.

has or may secure reasonably accurate knowledge, and to organize his knowledge so that he can present it in an interesting form. The teacher should also arrange the classroom and plan the class work so that the pupil will feel that his audience desires to hear what he has to say, and should teach the class to listen closely and to criticize sympathetically and discriminately.

2. An effective point of view on the part of the teacher involves the recognition of writing and speaking as simply two forms of one mental act, and the breaking down of the barrier which, in method of instruction, has been raised between them. Likewise it involves the recognition of the fact that language is, in its origin, oral; that speech, in spite of the large use made of written language, is still the typical form of expression; and that, because of this, the appeal of language is primarily to the ear, not to the eye. Obviously, then, language instruction gains in effectiveness when based upon the grouping of sounds on the lips of the pupil instead of the writing of words on a page. It is equally apparent that literature takes on a fuller meaning when it can appeal to a cultivated auditory sense. As in the elementary school oral language work is the natural preliminary to written work from the necessity of learning to speak before learning to write, so in the high school constant oral practice should precede, or at least accompany, written exercises in order to preserve the essential and vital forms of language.

3. The command by the pupil of the elements of effective expression involves the teaching of the principles underlying both written and oral expression. The pupil should be made to realize that all conversation is composition; that, after all, writing is but the record of good talking, and that his habits of speech and of writing can each be made to reinforce each other. Instruction in oral expression then shares with instruction in written language responsibility for the vocabulary, for the correct application of the rules of grammar, for the correct use of words separately and in combination, and for the observance of the rhetorical rules for unity, coherence, emphasis, and general effectiveness.

In addition, instruction in oral expression must include drill on the phonetic elements of language, the establishment of a competent voice, the mobilization of the organs of speech, and the attainment of the ready coördination of mind and tongue.



4. The coöperation of all teachers in demanding the constant use of good oral expression is essential. To expect the English classroom alone to neutralize the bad habits of speech acquired in the home and on the street is unreasonable. In so far as teachers in all departments do not demand good expression from their pupils or fail in their own speech to use good English, the school harbors an influence that directly undermines the work of the English teacher. The practice of requiring topical recitations in all subjects that admit of that method, and complete answers to many questions in all subjects, furnishes natural and worthy exercises in speech, and at the same time reacts favorably upon the work in every classroom and constitutes a simple means of developing the power of sustained effort in thinking.

## II. THE IMMEDIATE AIMS

The immediate classroom aims of teaching oral expression may be summed up under the ability: (1) To answer questions intelligently and fully; (2) to converse agreeably; (3) to collect and organize material for oral discourse; (4) to present effectively in a natural environment material already organized; (5) to join courteously and pertinently in informal discussion; (6) to read aloud in such a way as to present the writer's thought and spirit; and (7) for those who have, or hope to develop, qualities of leadership, the ability to address an audience, or to conduct a public meeting.

## III. THE ACTIVITIES IN ORAL EXPRESSION

The activities that lead to the accomplishment of these aims may be broadly grouped under three heads—physical, intellectual, and emotional. These activities, however, connect at so many points and often blend so completely that no attempt will be made to articulate the exercises along these lines.

### MECHANICS OF ORAL EXPRESSION

1. *Breathing* is a mechanical process which is best cared for in the classes by physical exercise. In schools where there are no gymnasium classes, a few minutes of deep breathing, with the windows open and the pupils standing erect with heads thrown well back, will contribute to the health of the pupils and to their preparation for good vocalization.

2. *Vocalization*.—With the unscientific theories of voice production and voice development that have prevailed in the past, it has been practically impossible to secure helpful results from classroom work where lack of time permitted only unison practice. The latest findings of science, however, throw new light upon the way the organs produce sound, and how they should be used to produce the best results. A few simple exercises in vocalization, continued through the grades, will help to produce full resonance and to overcome the unquestioned harshness of the American voice.

3. *Posture and gesture*.—Along with the exercises in breathing a simple system of calisthenics can be used that will induce grace and freedom of movement in bodily action. Exercises calculated to develop bodily response to thought and feeling, in reading, reciting, or speaking to an audience, should be accompanied by explanation of the interpretative meaning of simple pose and gesture.

4. *Phonetics*.—Instruction in phonetics and diacritical marks should accompany the physical exercises of the ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades. Much practice should be given in pronouncing words singly and in combination, followed by sustained effort at clear and pleasing expression of thought. The exercises that most successfully combine these drills are: oral reading, declamation and recitation, and dramatics.

*Oral reading*.—Oral reading is an exercise that can be profitably employed at all stages in elementary and high schools. Not only does it permit of the application of all the principles of expression and afford exercise for the voice and organs of articulation but it tends to impress upon the mind the meaning of words and the structure of sentences and paragraphs. Reading that aims to be audible, natural, and expressive, if practiced regularly through a series of years, will benefit all branches of English study. Especially in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, reading aloud should be given a large place. The choicest passages from the masterpieces used for study and selections from great fiction, poetry, oratory, and drama make good material for these exercises.

*Recitation and declamation*.—The practice of memorizing passages of good literature and giving them vocal interpretation in public, though much less in vogue than formerly, still has its

place when following thorough instruction and practice in reading aloud. All the advantages that accrue to English study from reading aloud follow likewise from practice of memorizing and repeating selections from the masterpieces. Such exercises, wisely conducted, besides providing practice in addressing public audiences, give large meaning and interest to the study of great poetry. Care should be taken, however, to avoid encouraging an artificial and exaggerated delivery.

*Dramatics.*—To turn the pupil's interest in the drama into a love for the beautiful in art and the best things in life is a purpose worthy of the schools. If this aim be achieved to any extent, it must come through guiding the pupils to an intelligent enjoyment of acted plays and such semidramatic entertainments as operas, pageants, festivals, moving pictures, etc., and through helping them to see, in both the acted and the printed play, whatever makes it of enduring value. The teacher can do for the pupils what the drama league is trying to do for the public generally.

Along with the practice of acting for the broad cultural purpose of appreciation of the dramatic values, desired results may be obtained in the development of taste and facility in oral expression. Some teachers employ the dramatic method in the study of Shakespeare by having the plays acted in whole or in part by the class, and in the study of dramatic poetry and prose fiction by dramatizing scenes and acting them. Such exercises afford excellent practice in the arts of speech.

The class play and the school play have come to occupy an important place among school activities. A large number of excellent plays, both standard and academic, have been found worthy of being used in this connection.

*Conversation.*—In the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, groups of from five to ten pupils should be organized as conversation groups. The teachers should introduce familiar and dignified topics and insist on language that is clear and correct.

*Extemporaneous speech.*—Talks in which the thought has been carefully prepared and in which the thought as well as the language and form of address are given attention and criticism by the class should be arranged for, especially in the later years of the high-school course. Among the different projects that may be successfully employed for such exercises are: Reports

upon current topics, relation of personal experience, story telling, speeches of presiding officers, after-dinner speeches, and reports upon supplementary reading, etc. To make this work of the largest value the principles of arrangement should be insisted on throughout.

*Debate.*—Instruction and practice in debating can be made of large value in teaching English. It gives occasion for intense mental effort in analysis and encourages effective expression as do few other exercises. Debates organized by class teams with uncommitted arguments, before the school or club and occasionally in public, if carefully supervised by competent teachers, are of value. Care should be taken to secure accurate information, clear thinking, natural expression, and a reasonable attitude toward opponents. The social value of this exercise, with its lessons of mutual dependence and helpfulness, is an important by-product.

*The formal address or oration* was once used extensively as a rhetorical exercise and for the commencement program, but has given way to a considerable extent to the less formal speech. It is still useful, however, as a supplement to the other form, especially when occasions can be utilized that will give a special significance to the utterance. National and state holidays, birthdays of poets and famous men, or other special occasions, afford suitable opportunities for such exercises. This form of exercise should come late in the course and should be carefully supervised to secure dignified treatment of worthy themes.

#### IV. WORK BY GRADES

##### GRADE VII

###### ACTIVITIES:

1. *Vocalization* in unison, in soft, even, resonant tones, beginning with a hum and developing the syllables beginning with m, n, l, and ending with e, o, a, viz.:  
mē-mē-mē, nē-nē-nē, lē-lē-lē, etc.  
Restrict pitch to three or four tones in the middle voice.  
Use simple songs to develop flexibility.
2. *Vowel practice* in conjunction with vocalization to establish the correct quality for the vowel sounds.
3. *Articulation practice* at frequent intervals, to secure completeness and distinct utterance.
4. *The speech defects* of individuals should be carefully tabulated and the proper exercises prescribed.

5. *Oral reading* for the proper grouping of words, with instruction in management of voice in inflection and emphasis.
6. *Memorizing* appropriate selections in prose and verse.
7. *Oral composition*.—(a) Projecting the substance and organization of composition, talking it. (b) Memorizing and reciting of written composition. (c) Speaking from a prepared outline. Subjects: Narrative. Reproduction of stories told to pupils. Variation method in retelling. The variation called for should be in choice of words and the arrangement of words and phrases in sentences. Stories from outline furnished by the teacher. Stories outlined by pupils, then retold. Stories begun by teacher and completed by pupils.

**ATTAINMENT:**

Reading that can be distinctly understood by the class with books closed.  
Oral composition with a fair degree of fluency and coherence.

**NOTE.**—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization, and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.

GRADE VIII

**ACTIVITIES:**

1. *Vocalization*, same as in seventh grade, extending the practice to all combinations of consonant and vowel sounds, and extending the range of pitch to one octave.
2. *Articulation*, practice same as in seventh grade.
3. *Speech defects* studied as in the seventh grade.
4. *Oral reading* continued, with emphasis laid on smoothness and flow of sentences.
5. *Memorized selections* recited before the class. These may be either prose or poetry. Attention should be given to avoiding a singing effect.
6. *Posture* corrected to secure erectness and graceful pose.
7. *Oral composition*, as in the seventh year. Stories told by teacher, based on models. Emphasis laid on variety of sentence length, form, and structure.

**ATTAINMENT:**

Reading to which the class listens with pleasure with books closed.

**NOTE.**—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization, and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.

GRADE IX

**ACTIVITIES:**

1. *Vocalisation*, same as in eighth grade.
2. *Pronunciation* of words containing commonly misused sounds, as—
  - (a) oi sounds; e. g., oil, voice, etc.
  - (b) aw sounds; e. g., saw, draw, etc.
  - (c) ing endings.
  - (d) other sounds misused in the locality.

3. *Enunciation* of words that are commonly slurred, as in "had to" and in "would have," etc.
4. *Posture*. Instruction and practice in poise and simple movements for expression.
5. *Memorised selections*, prose or poetry, delivered before the school or class, stress on phrasing, emphasis, and some dramatic effectiveness.
6. *Oral composition*. (a) Exposition on current events; clearness emphasized. (b) Reproduction of (1) scenes from books read, (2) myths, Bible stories, fables, etc., emphasis laid on coherence.
7. *Oral reading*. (a) Poetry, with proper phrasing and emphasis to avoid singing effect. (b) Prose, conversations with some dramatic effect.

#### ATTAINMENT:

Intelligent interpretative reading and recital of simple prose and poetry. Voice pleasing. Utterance distinct and reasonably accurate.

The habit of answering in complete sentences in all recitations.

NOTE.—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.

#### GRADE X

#### ACTIVITIES:

1. *Correction of speech defects*. Rapid utterance, incorrect movement of tongue, rigid lips, slight movement of lower jaw, etc. Exercises for private practice to overcome defects.
2. *Phonetics*. A study of the vowel and consonant sounds of the English language, and practice in producing these sounds separately and in combination. Particular attention to pupils who lisp or have a foreign accent.
3. *Pronunciation*. Instruction in syllabification and accent. Classification of common errors. Drill in difficult vowels and words commonly mispronounced.
4. *Training the ear*. By calling attention to pleasant and unpleasant effects in connection with work in phonetics, pronunciation, voice culture, oral reading, and speaking.
5. *Cultivation of the voice*. Continued exercises for resonance and range of voice. This can be carried on in connection with work in phonetics, reading, and oral composition.
6. *Oral reading*. Relating utterance to thought through grouping, inflection, pauses, and emphasis. Portions of the prose and poetry used in literature study of the class are available.
7. *Posture and action*. Instruction and practice in posture and action in connection with delivery of selections and dramatization.
8. *Delivery of memorised selections*. Practice in conveying an author's thought to an audience, securing and holding the attention of an audience. Attention should be given to rate of utterance, force, pitch, and quality of voice.
9. *Dramatisation*. Analysis of character, relation of one character to another, interpretation of character, stage business, dramatization of

scenes from *Silas Marner*, Browning's poems, Shakespeare's plays, or other literature that is studied by the class.

10. *Oral composition.* Well-pronounced sentences should be required for all oral recitations. Class conversations, stories, experiences, reports, extemporaneous speeches, on subjects drawn from the literature study correlated studies, school affairs, current events. Emphasis should be laid upon complete paragraphs and a coherent arrangement.

**ATTAINMENT:**

The ability to talk coherently in conversation, recitation, and speech.

The ability to render simple selections distinctly, interestingly, and with simple, natural interpretative action.

**NOTE.**—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization, and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.

**GRADE XI**

**ACTIVITIES:**

1. Exercises in phonetics, pronunciation, correction of speech defects, cultivation of voice, and ear training to be continued from the tenth grade.
2. Oral reading and delivery of memorized selections. Selections to be studied for the appropriate interpretation of the various literary types; the lyric, the dramatic monologue, the essay, etc. The literature studied in this grade will be found available for exercises.
3. Physical response or action. Instruction in appropriate bodily response to thought, gesture. Kinds of gestures, their use and abuse. Exercises for spontaneous response.
4. Dramatization. The simple dramatization of scenes from the literature studied in this grade. The study of Shakespearean dramas and the presentation of important scenes by the members of the class. The study of the contemporary drama, with discussions. The presentation by a selected cast of classical and popular dramas.
5. Oral composition. Extemporaneous speaking on topics assigned in advance and impromptu speaking on questions of school and local interest. Instruction in speech organization. Debate. Instruction as to (a) Statement of question. (b) Definition of terms. (c) Distinction between assertion and proof. (d) The nature of evidence, debating between members of the class, divided into teams, on questions of local interest and simple questions of state or national interest.
6. Public speaking. While the class will furnish the audience for much of the speaking practice, public occasions should be arranged for, where those preparing themselves for work that calls for public speech will have opportunity, after careful preparation, of speaking in public.
7. Vocabulary. Emphasis should be laid upon the importance of extending the vocabulary by looking up words not well understood, by keeping

a notebook for desirable words, and by the study of synonyms, antonyms, and idioms.

#### ATTAINMENT:

The ability to interpret simple specimens of the different literary types. For those planning to become public speakers, the ability to address effectively a class, club, or other group, on simple topics.

NOTE.—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization, and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.

### GRADE XII

#### ACTIVITIES:

1. Exercises in phonetics, pronunciation, correction of speech defects, voice and ear training should be continued for pupils who have special need of it.
2. Physical response to thought and feeling studied in professional speakers and actors. Habits of gesture and facial expression that are in force. Thought should be developed.
3. *Oral reading and delivering memorized selections.*—Aside from the literature prescribed for this grade, the great orations and poems furnish material for interpretation.
4. *Dramatization.*—The reading and discussion of some of the best of the contemporary dramas, with a view to presentation of one or more of these by a selected cast.
5. *Oral composition.*—Debating continued, as in the eleventh grade, with the emphasis upon a logical development of the thought, the presentation of satisfactory evidence, and interesting delivery. Planning speeches for particular occasions, *e. g.*, social occasions, introduction of speakers, after-dinner talks, gift presentations; business occasions, explaining a business proposition, soliciting coöperation, a lawyer's plea, etc.
6. *Orations.*—The memorizing and delivery of carefully prepared compositions on important themes from political or industrial life, or from literature. Instruction in choosing subjects and illustrations within the experience of the audience. Consideration of the elements of interest and how to avoid digression and tediousness. Relation between speaker and audience.
7. *Vocabulary.*—Continued emphasis upon the necessity of acquiring an ample vocabulary.
8. *Parliamentary practice.*—Instruction and practice in parliamentary procedure.

#### ATTAINMENT:

The ability to address an audience effectively and to make a graceful speech for school occasions.

The ability to preside satisfactorily at meetings of a class or club.

NOTE.—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization, and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.



## PARLIAMENTARY LAW AND PUBLIC SPEAKING

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**T**HE knowledge of the laws of assemblies possessed by the average college man rarely includes more than the making of a simple main motion, placing business in the hands of a committee, and moving for adjournment. This ignorance exists in spite of the fact that large numbers of the students have been members of societies during their preparatory school days—of societies that placed upon their programs frequently so-called parliamentary drills.

As these drills are generally without system, there is no use finding fault with the college student who displays a very rudimentary knowledge of parliamentary law. Frequently the drills are "rough-house" affairs: foolish motions are made, impossible combinations are devised on the spur of the moment, arbitrary rulings are given by the fellow in the chair, appeals are made which are decided with little or no comprehension of their legality and with no respect for the precedents established. In such programs few know what decisions are correct except the Censor who is probably equipped with a book of rules. When the hilarious half hour is over, the boys leave the gathering almost as ignorant of proper procedure as when they entered.

The students in these preparatory schools ought not be censured for their ignorance, for there is seldom anyone who can properly guide their exercises. The teachers who might attend the meetings can be of little assistance because they were brought up under the same system as the boys. Should an inquiring student look for help in books and magazines, he will find little that will assist him in the conduct of a meeting. A few small manuals have appeared which are valuable, although the average book of rules is a Chinese puzzle to the beginner. Indeed a student of parliamentary law from a book will know about as much concerning the conduct of a meeting as a would-be swimmer after reading an illustrated article on the art of swimming. Added to this difficulty is the curious fact that the present educational system pro-

vides no teachers empowered to guide the youth systematically through the subject. In fact there are instructors who deprecate the study of parliamentary law, claiming that common sense and tact are all that is needed to transact the ordinary business of life. Accordingly, as the courses are now arranged, what the students get, they glean for themselves in haphazard fashion. When confronted by a real parliamentary difficulty, they solve it in the short way by moving to adjourn.

These comments upon the conditions that exist in preparatory schools lead naturally to an inquiry concerning the conditions that exist in a large number of colleges. Are they any better? Here likewise the students are introduced to literary societies upon whose programs the usual hotch-potch drills are scheduled. The members take great delight in grilling some unfortunate chairman, depending for guidance in their proceeding, not upon him, but upon some parliamentary "shark" who has secured a copy of Roberts or Cushing and managed to digest it. The students are necessarily thrown back upon their own resources, for no course in the subject is provided, so far at least as the catalogues furnish evidence. A search through the catalogues of Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Pennsylvania, and a host of other colleges will reveal nothing pertaining to Parliamentary Law. In the courses offered, mention is made of Civics wherein the students are taught their relation to the state; but no attention is paid to the laws which are employed in councils, in legislatures, or in Congress. The colleges advertise courses in Argumentation wherein the students are supposed to set forth reasons and conclusions with a hint at persuasion. In connection with neither of these lines is parliamentary procedure mentioned. Even in the regular courses in Public Speaking, not a word shows that the laws of assemblies receive any attention.

Dropping the college catalogues as sources of information, it may be interesting to take a general survey of the literature devoted to Public Speaking. There are some very excellent books on the market and some poor ones. Until recently not one of these paid any attention to Parliamentary Law. Hardly any mention is made of the subject in contemporary periodicals. Even our own publication, *THE QUARTERLY*, has never touched the usages of public gatherings. Does all of this mean that teachers of Public Speaking give no heed to Parliamentary Law? Prob-

ably many are teaching the subject incidentally without mentioning it in their college publications.

With such conditions prevailing in our schools and colleges and with such a dearth of material from which to draw inspiration, a writer may with diffidence approach the relation of Parliamentary Law to Public Speaking courses.

The plea about to be made, however, is that somewhere in our courses room be made for a little instruction in parliamentary usages.

The first query that ought to be answered is the practical one: Is the subject useful? That very word useful is the touchstone which should admit the subject to our courses in this utilitarian age. For the same reason that a student of Engineering learns the use of tools, the student of Public Speaking should learn the use of Parliamentary Law. The law is one of the tools which he will use in the great practical world. There he will find men organized for the accomplishment of their ends. He will find "the butcher, the baker, the candle-stick maker" united into societies by a common interest. He will hear of the Green Bag Association, of the Sawbones Club, of the Sewing Bee, and of the Button-hole Makers' Union. He will become aware of art societies, trade unions of all kinds, granges, lodges, suffrage organizations, patriotic coteries, civic clubs, and clubs political, social, and religious. Every day he will read of conventions, synods, assemblies, parliaments, and congresses—of people gathered for profit or pleasure. All of these, from the Boy Scouts to the Congress of the United States, he will note are governed fundamentally by the same laws and customs. A knowledge, then, of a subject used by all men in their organizations must surely be useful; hence it should be placed definitely in a course in Public Speaking.

It is rather curious that a subject so commonly used has not appeared in the curriculum. Certainly those of us who have tried to introduce some instruction have been amazed at the ignorance of our pupils. We seldom find young men who comprehend parliamentary usages and never any young women. In spite of this lack of knowledge these young people are able to transact the ordinary business of their class meetings, clubs, fraternities, and other associations. They do this in the easiest way, following the line of least resistance. By good-humored courtesy, or by

obstinate adherence, a point may be carried. Whenever a real difficulty arises an appeal is made to the president of the college or to some other member of the faculty. With such a condition confronting the teacher of Public Speaking there ought to be no serious objection to a moderate amount of instruction in the college classes. Our plain duty is to enlighten the young men and women who come to our classrooms; to fit them for the arena of life. By so doing we shall render them a service of great value. They will not yield with the same degree of trepidation to the feelings of the average person who is confronted with the duties of a chairman. Their knowledge, supplemented by class practice, will enable them to hold the reins with dignity and fairness. Their position in future communities, their reputation in assemblies will be enhanced because we have given them knowledge and the power that goes with knowledge.

While we are imparting the rudiments of the law it might be well to keep in mind that parliamentary usages are closely connected with the line that we teach. Part of our business is to prepare people for participation in public affairs. If we are permitted to help students to compose addresses, to organize material for debates, to deliver prepared productions—always with an eye to some future public occasion—why should we not help them to learn the laws that govern public bodies and to use them with facility? By doing so we add one more point of contact with the outer world.

Granting that Parliamentary Law is more or less connected with Public Speaking, why not use it as a device for imparting instruction and for drawing forth expression from students? To do this all that is necessary is to connect speeches with motions. Given a day, for instance, when a town council is supposed to meet. Let each student prepare to make a motion and to support it by a brief argument. Such an exercise will bring to the surface a surprising crop of subjects with accompanying ideas. The streets, lights, trees, public buildings, parks, water supply, trolley lines, sanitation, pavements, graft, and many other municipal affairs will be discussed. Occasionally an ordinance may be projected. Due notice having been given a debate may be precipitated over a franchise to some greedy service company. Given another day when the school board meets, a grist of educational topics will be ready for the hopper. Salaries, supplies,

teachers, taxes, buildings, improvements, courses, playgrounds, and other phases with which the student comes in daily contact will be freely discussed. At other times boards of trade may assemble; civic clubs, legislatures, lodges, labor unions, granges, and numerous other bodies at discretion. The meeting of these imaginary organizations and the transaction of imaginary business in proper form will help to stimulate interest in Public Speaking.

After a preliminary round of addresses a few minutes may then be devoted to parliamentary drill connected directly with one of the subjects that has been presented. With a student in the chair, let the various subsidiary, incidental, and privileged motions be made. Here is the time for the formal instruction in Parliamentary Law, the time to show by diagram or other means the relative importance of motions. It is not desirable to toss whole blocks of motions before a class. By adding a motion or two at each meeting in progressive order a systematic course in the laws may be given that will be understood and appreciated by every member of the class. The feeling of bewilderment which is always present at the beginning of a course in the law will gradually disappear as the students unravel the entanglements that heretofore had puzzled them. They will take delight in developing difficulties and trying to "stick" the Chair. Points of order will be made with reasons to back them. Chairmen will make rulings and support them by law instead of by arbitrary methods. The students will thus come to see that Parliamentary Law is not the dismal, intangible subject they had conceived it to be, but a practical affair, the result of years of experience, giving equality of opportunity to all. The teacher will have the pleasure of imparting instruction to classes growing in knowledge of parliamentary forms and also attaining ability to speak.

In recognition of the usefulness of the laws of public gatherings, of the need for definite instruction in such laws, and of the fact that they be successfully used as a device for stimulating an interest in Public Speaking, the Eastern Conference at its meeting in New Haven formally recommended "that teachers of Public Speaking in colleges should give instruction in Parliamentary Law in connection with some one of their courses."

## SPEECH TRAINING FOR BUSINESS MEN

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**T**O discuss the question of speech training for business men intelligently, I must call attention to a few unique and distinctive features of the work. In the first place, the subject must be presented from the viewpoint of utility, of practical effectiveness and not mere theory. In the second place the body of principles must be small and not too involved. When I begin my classes, I adopt a slogan used by the modern doctor, "I'm depending upon you to do your part." And "your part" as I present it is simply this: to build up a body of principles into an attitude of mind, operative during actual speech.

In the early stages of my work among business men, I was unfortunate enough to talk about intermittent stress, orotund quality, and all the other frightful names in a professional elocutionist's terminology. Business men are always polite and they dropped out of my classes with very evident regret. Fortunately, as I sat in my studio student-less I placed the blame on the right party—myself. So I studied these same men who had so politely dropped out of my classes, with the result that my teaching method received a thorough overhauling. There is an overwhelming wave of interest in personal efficiency sweeping the country and in this work the public speaking teachers should assume their rightful leadership.

The basic viewpoint that I always try to build up is this. Speech training calls for no strange impractical cast of mind, but simply for an extension and enlargement of every-day thought and emotional processes—with an immediate applicability. It calls for the ability to throw oneself into states of creative excitement, of personal expansiveness. And the sole problem of speech training is to inhibit speech disintegrating impulses by the substitution of speech impelling impulses. The relation of these impulses to the motor impulses of business and professional life is then pointed out and a chain of interest is forged. Last year my classes increased in size and continued eight weeks over the regular term at their own initiative. I do not pretend to be able

to add anything to the knowledge of speech training possessed by academic teachers of public speaking. The purpose of this article is merely to convey in some measure my method of presenting principles.

The public speaker needs to be a thinker in a big, continuous way. And the ever present purpose in training is to build up a steadily growing recognition of the part played by ideas in speech. I believe that all speech development depends upon the improvement of the associational faculty. The greater part of our exercises therefore deal with the discovery of relationships existing between ideas. Each pupil daily builds up a theme of current interest, by testing out his ideas with a list of carefully chosen words. Each word chosen for its thought provocative value points the mind along a definite theme developing path. In this way we bring about a developed receptivity, a mind sensitized to the presence of ideas and a vigorous tendency toward emotional reaction. And at every opportune moment I endeavor to impress them with the relation of this development to their every-day business and professional life.

In this work of extending the environment of an idea, the men grasp the principles of public speaking with all of the freshness of original discovery. They come to a sudden realization of the necessity of individualizing ideas, of sensing the central idea and of creating a vivid imagery. My whole aim is to make men feel certain needs and then help them discover the principles that will meet these needs. To reiterate these principles, and at the same time avoid their becoming mere trite truisms is the crux of the teaching profession. I have discovered that each statement of a principle must convey some vague promise of personal power. I might add that this form of presentation grew out of a whole-hearted interest in the welfare of my students. The physician must be shown the value of a developed power of attention, the business man must be shown the value of a moment of creative silence. So it was something more than mere charlatanry that prompted me to use wherever possible an inspiring form of presentation. The greatest need of a teacher of public speaking facing a class of matured men is an adequate talking knowledge of his subject. The following list of "forms of presentation" used in actual class work is not intended to have continuity or logical form of arrangement. It is intended to suggest if possible a few happy additions to our common professional terminology.

**PRINCIPLE I.** *Each idea must be individualized and built up by extending the environment.*

Our problem is to build up a general idea on a subject into a speech-compelling idea. Therefore each idea must be made to assume tremendous proportions quickly so that it will make an imperative demand upon attention and dominate delivery.

#### A FEW RESTATEMENTS OF THE PRINCIPLE

The elusiveness of ideas is due to the fact that their environment has not been built up.

Gather such a wealth of associated ideas about a central idea as to necessitate vocal utterance.

The bane of much speaking is the delivery of incipient, partially realized ideas.

A flagging idea can be instantly revitalized by extending its range of associations.

It is only the dynamic growing idea that a public speaker can work with.

Environmental ideas are timid, unwilling to be coerced, but ready to rush in when responsive conditions have been established.

The function of these "surburban" ideas out in the borderland of consciousness is to put meaning into the theme-developing ideas.

A well built up idea furnishes the mind with an inexhaustible driving power.

The survival of an idea in its battle with countless irrelevant ideas, depends upon the attractiveness of its presentation.

The concordance of the next idea in the theme developing chain is assured by building up each individual thought unit.

**PRINCIPLE II.** *A logical sequence of theme-developing ideas must be maintained.*

#### A FEW RESTATEMENTS OF THE PRINCIPLE

When we accredit a writer or speaker with unusual finesse we pay compliment to his skill in choosing from among the cluster of associated ideas, the one best fitted to the development of the theme.

We must build up a hearty reaction of the speaker's mind to those sudden unexpected thought connections constantly springing to birth.

A speaker must develop a value-sensing discretion so that there may be no irresolution or hesitancy in choosing that next idea.

To blazon a logical theme path through the countless hordes of ideas—each with its distinctive pull.

Self-confidence is built up as soon as we are able to sense ideas as integral parts of a definite chain.

The instability of our thought stream or chain is usually due to the fact that the links have not been securely welded together.

Each new connection furnishes a fresh impetus to the driving power of an idea.



Nothing puts the blight on an idea as quickly as isolation.

The final test of an idea is—does it help or hinder the unfolding of the theme.

It takes a definite and appreciable length of time for the propagation of nerve energy known as the association of ideas, and this necessitates a time interval.

**PRINCIPLE III.** *A vigorous emotional reaction to each idea must be awakened.*

#### A FEW RESTATEMENTS OF THE PRINCIPLE

Voice has charm when its nature partakes directly of the emotional reaction to an idea.

Speakers are tame when the original motivating, actuating, emotional force has died out.

Withered ideas are incapable of generating enough emotional energy to mold the voice.

You must not expect to can your emotion in a thermos bottle and bring it to the platform.

The conditions necessary to a soul-stirring, mind-molding speech amount practically to a state of exaltation.

We must aim to avoid any emotional neutrality, we can at least develop an emotion of interest.

It is said of early biblical writers that they longed, aspired, and felt before they saw clearly and uttered.

The richest legacy that an idea can leave the mind is a tendency toward emotional reaction.

The impulse to speak comes to us in moments of emotional expansion.

Emotion is a feeling adjustment to the value of the thought.

The prime purpose of every teacher of public speaking is of course to determine the defects in the thought and emotional mechanisms that cause modulational defects and to set forth the constructive adjustments necessary to either eliminate or minimize their occurrence. The fundamental characteristic of speech must ever be a dynamic personal adjustment to an idea. Thought must be released in such freedom and fullness as to submerge all consciousness of self. I have come into touch with men working out their visions into reality. I have come into touch with men of awakened ambition struggling against the debris of wasted years. The sudden discovery of the possibility of developing creative thought power holds them. I have found out that this power of developing ideas during delivery can best be built up by making a few principles actually operative. Principles must be developed into attitudes of mind and this in turn can best be brought about by constant repetition.

## JUDGING DEBATES

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**I**F earnest teachers of argumentation and debate were convinced that debating contests were primarily a game, the subject of this article would be of small interest. It is true that debating contests necessarily partake of the quality of a sport; but if there be no higher purpose than the winning of decisions, then many of us have devoted our lives to a vain endeavor. The testimony of those who have participated in debate is almost unanimously to the effect that debating contests have added incalculably to their mental equipment. In other words, debating is the highest form of educational training.

Debate is a contest in oral argumentation; it is a special use of the art of argumentation.

Argumentation is the art of communicating co-related ideas to others in such manner as to convince and persuade.

The great value of debate in education lies in its co-relating function. It gives the student opportunity to use the abstract ideas which he has acquired in other branches of study in the attainment of concrete purposes and objects. It teaches him to use his mental tools.

Since debate is something more than a mere game, it is highly important that sound principles be laid down, upon which decisions shall be rendered. The student should not be discouraged by a decision which is obviously erroneous.

I have been very much interested in the discussion between Professor William Hawley Davis, of Bowdoin College, and Professor J. M. O'Neill, of the University of Wisconsin, in *THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING*. I disclaim all pretense of ability to contend with these formidable experts, and I refer to their articles because they have so ably presented the opposing contentions respecting the purposes of debate contest. While I find myself more strongly inclined to accept the general principles set forth by Professor Davis, I am unable to agree wholly with either of the disputants. Conceding Professor Davis'

every contention, it would seem to be ineluctable that judges of experience are more eminently qualified to determine which team has presented the better case or argument.

It is said that decisions should be rendered upon the "skill" displayed in debating. This statement needs definition: What is skill in debating? Indeed, what is debating? An awkward rail-splitting Lincoln, with all his rhetorical deficiencies, but nevertheless with the mind and stumbling ability to express logical and convincing thought in such a manner as to meet and overcome the case of his opponents, surely is entitled to the decision.

But we are told that "skill in debating" consists in "research, reasoning, and speaking." (p. 203, QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING, July, 1915.) But this is a question-begging definition. How shall the judge determine the comparative excellence of the teams in these qualities? Manifestly, an elaborate system must be devised to admeasure these qualities; I know of no two experts who accept the same standards. The component divisions of each of these elements will immediately require standardization,—the task is interminable.

Most instructors and coaches of debate endeavor to prevent percentage calculations in arriving at decisions, as it is conceded that such calculations lead to palpably absurd results. It is also recognized that the debater, who strives to win under such a system, is developing a wholly artificial style; in other words, is being trained in conditions utterly foreign to those circumstances which he must be prepared to meet in real life.

No one credits a preacher with 80 per cent for argument, 10 per cent for diction, and 10 per cent for presentation. Indeed, if the public speaker has learned his art, his listener will be completely oblivious to any of the elements which make up the ensemble of the address. The primary object of forensic art is to conceal the machinery of the speech; to use argumentation, diction and strategy for the purpose of forceful and convincing presentation of the theme, itself. [Percentage calculations, on the contrary, tend to induce the speaker to emphasize those very things which true art demands shall be hidden.]

But how may debate be judged upon the elements of "research, reasoning, and speaking," unless the judge adopts some percentage method, in fact or in effect? How much credit shall be given research; how much to reasoning; how much to speak-

ing? In any event, it is manifest that some judges will give more credit to one element than to others; it is, therefore, absolutely necessary that an arbitrary percentage standard be adopted, if this method be used at all.

It is apparent, therefore, that it is exceedingly difficult to state an acceptable rule, whereby excellence in polemic skill and speech art may be compared. But the practical valuation of public speaking by Doctor S. H. Clark, of the University of Chicago, in his recent pamphlet, issued by the National Security League, more nearly approaches common assent than any other. Doctor Clark says:

"Ninety per cent of public speaking is futile, and the other ten per cent not nearly so effective as it might be, largely because speakers fail to keep in mind that public speaking is an art. . . . When a salesman goes forth to sell, there is only one test of his efficiency: His sales. . . .

"Now, a speaker is a salesman for an idea, and unless the people accept his idea, the speech is a failure. It may have cost him great effort, it may be full of erudition, it may have been splendidly delivered; but it was a failure if it did not get the results he wanted."

[Public speaking is an art, and an art is the practical application of scientific knowledge to definite purposes and objectives. Therefore, skill in "reasoning, research, and speaking" should be judged by results.] In other words, by their power of conviction and persuasion. That is to say, the practical admeasurement which commends itself to thoughtful minds results in nothing more nor less than a comparative weighing of the "case" made by speaker, even though we adopt the proposed system, and base decisions upon comparative excellence in "research, reasoning, and speaking."

Argumentation is likewise an art, and debating is merely the oral expression of that art. [Unless the exponents of the new system of judging debate agree that "research, reasoning, and speaking" shall be accredited in accordance with their convincing and persuasive force (in which case, they merely propose a complicated and unnecessary method for weighing the "cases" presented), then it is evident that they fail to distinguish between art and a science.] They are asking debate judges to pass upon an exhibition or display of scientific technique. Apparently this is the idea, for it is said: "Is it an exhibition or a race? Clearly

it seems to me it is the former." (QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING, July, 1915, page 203.)

If this be true, then debating occupies a unique sphere. No other contest is so regarded, unless it be a horse show, and even here a decision is based upon a result of the art of raising horses. The issue is really stated thus: [Shall debate decisions be based upon the art of coaching debaters or upon the art of argumentation, achieved by the debaters?] If the latter, we have the "case" they present. If the former, we are passing upon "skill in debate."

Now, the art of speech is not to be ignored, but it has value only as an aid in the expression of ideas. It should never be given preëminence over ideas. The untutored Lincoln will doubtless present his ideas with increasing effect and power when he has been properly trained in the art of expression. But, it would be anomalous to ignore the essential in favor of the incident. Likewise, research is not to be ignored. It is impossible to reason clearly, logically and convincingly, unless the debater is thoroughly conversant with his subject. This is particularly true when the student is meeting an opponent in actual contest. Therefore, it is again evident that research is also an incident in debate. In other words, proficiency in speaking and industry in research are qualities which must be cultivated in order to be convincing and persuasive. [Therefore, clear and accurate expression, knowledge of debate procedure, industry in research, and good speaking *do* determine decisions *because they aid in driving the thought home. The debater who possesses these virtues is persuasive and convincing.*] But, having performed their function, having added to the argument every persuasive element which rhetorical art and scholarly industry can give, clear and accurate expression, strategic use of debate procedure, interpretative art and knowledge gleaned from research have given the teams' case every advantage to which it is justly entitled, and it is difficult to comprehend why these elements should receive further consideration. To do so is really to accredit them twice, and, what is far worse, to make the mechanics of debate and forensics an end in themselves, rather than to treat these elements for what they really are, namely, powerful agencies for the transmission of thought.

Suppose one team is lacking in some of those elements called "debating ability." Manifestly, it is at a great disadvantage, when pitted against a team possessing them. The other team, by virtue of its "debating ability," presents every argument so clearly that its entire case receives full credit in the minds of the judges. In the hypothetical case just stated, if the decision were rendered upon the comparative "debating ability," of the teams, it would be possible that the decision would go to the team which had been soundly defeated in argument. It is impossible to avoid such a farcical decision, if debate be judged upon any other basis than upon the respective merits of the case or argument presented by the opposing teams. Debate, unless it is to be deemed a modified form of oratorical contest, must be judged upon the merits of the argument presented, solely. When debate is so judged, it is evident that interpretive art and polemic skill have received due and proper credit in and through the force they have given to the argument. To accredit them further is to give them double weight and to inject a false element, namely, the attainment of forensic grace and technical skill, as ends in themselves.

Debate decisions must be rendered upon the merits of the argument presented by the debaters, irrespective of the personal opinions of the judges concerning the merits of the resolution. Doubtless the training would be more practical, if the decision represented the opinions of the judges, after an open-minded hearing of both sides of the debate, since the contest would then assume the character of similar situations in every-day life. But inter-collegiate debate is necessarily restricted by time limits, and a team must, therefore, select those lines of discussion, which careful analysis shows to be fundamental. If the opposing team raises no other issues, it thereby constructively admits that the first team has elected the controlling lines. It is fair to say, in passing, that it requires some hardihood in even an expert in argumentation to say, off-hand, that the teams, which have been preparing for months, are both wrong and that his personal opinions represent more vital and determinative issues. (But, in any event, it is manifestly unjust to require the debaters to cover every possible issue which the judges may raise in their own minds; and obviously, it is impossible to do so within the time-limits.)

(So much, then, must be conceded to the game: The judges must pass upon the arguments presented as though they were exhaustive of the subject.) The task of the judge, therefore, is to place himself in the position of one who has no opinions or knowledge of the subject, other than what has been presented, and to make the decision which any reasonable and intelligent person would predicate upon the premises. In other words, he will say: "A reasonable human being, wholly uninformed upon this subject, having heard this argument, ought to be convinced that the Affirmative is right." Or, if the contrary: "that the Affirmative has failed to prove its case" (has not sustained its burden of proof). But such judging requires an intelligent and trained mind. Every person will not typify the average, reasonable man.

The exponents of decisions based upon "skill in debating" insist that decisions based upon the strength of the case or the weight of the evidence will result in victory for that team which accidentally chooses the right side of the question.

(While it is true that theoretically there must be a "right side" to every question, nevertheless, if the question be debatable it will never permit either side to conclusively demonstrate which is the "right side," or at least not during the short period of time devoted to inter-collegiate debate.) There should be no fear that college students will exhaust questions upon which the greatest statesmen, economists, sociologists, and political scientists disagree fundamentally.

Debatable questions are not capable of exact demonstration. They should be stated in a form which presents diametrically opposite viewpoints. It is usually true that the real solution of the debated problem lies somewhere between these extreme positions and the true theory of the debate, whether affirmative or negative, will approach as closely as possible to this middle ground. It is, therefore, possible to debate either side of a truly debatable proposition without compromising one's conscience. A team should not be permitted to present any argument which it does not believe to be true. We do not permit our teams to do so, and we prepare many simultaneous debates in which we debate both sides of the same question. Every debatable question presents an infinite field of valid argument upon both sides. It is almost inconceivable that anyone should fear that great industrial, social,

and political questions should develop a one-sided and issueless debate.

I am strongly convinced that most of the one-sided debates are only apparently so, their lop-sided character being due solely to insufficient or improper preparation, i. e., research, and thought.

Manifestly, the cure for one-sided debates lies in the selection of truly debatable questions and adequate preparation. The instructor or coach should see to it that the question is debatable. And this is not a difficult task, for there are exceedingly few questions which permit of conclusive proof, but, even if the instructor or coach shall have neglected his duty in this behalf, nevertheless the decision should be rendered in accordance with the weight of the case or argument, since any other decision is shocking to every moral sense and productive of false concepts.

The August, 1917, *Case and Comment* contains an argument to the jury, wherein the advocate displays an amazing "debating skill." By the use of the "shifting term" and disingenuous and transferred logic he proves that a white sheet of paper is black! If debate were judged upon comparative "skill in debating" and this identical argument were used, it would be insufficient for the opposing debater to hold the white sheet up for an ocular inspection, and rest his case upon the conclusive evidence of complete demonstration. After a few decisions of this character, if intelligent college men could still be interested in debate, it is certain that disgusted college authorities and an outraged public would soon speak in no uncertain terms.

But decisions based upon "skill in debating" do create a "right" and a "wrong" side. It frequently happens that one side of a resolution can only be validly maintained by original thought and argument. This will only be discovered after the most exhaustive research. But it is evident that the original theory presented in actual contest will leave no opportunity to display research, and the decision will be lost because no credit is received for this division of debating skill.

Or, reverse the situation: In realization that the decision will be lost, if the valid line of argument is followed, the team adopts a fallacious line, displays its research and wins!!! *Thought*, not proficiency or strategy in reasoning; creative imaginative, not the mere juggling of other men's ideas; convincing,



forceful expression, not mere technical excellence in speaking; these are the important elements we should seek to develop. ¶

What is said above in respect of research, may also be said in respect of speaking. One side of a question frequently furnishes opportunity for oratorical brilliancy, while the other side does not. The system of judging debate upon comparative "skill in debating," thus, clearly would make the decision dependent upon the accident of choosing the "right" side of the question.

It is said:

"The object of the team is precisely the same as that of a track team entering a meet. . . . The distinction is made that in judging the track meet a non-athlete will do because anyone can *see* who wins." (QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING, July, 1915, p. 204.)

Why is it impossible to *see* who wins a debate? Why is it difficult for a judge who is experienced in weighing evidence to follow the shifting burden of the issue and to determine whether the burden of proof has been carried successfully?

The difficulty arises from the fact that these burdens are not clearly defined.

The "burden of proof" is the duty resting upon the affirmative to establish a *prima facie* case in respect of the main proposition, by a preponderance of the evidence and rests upon the affirmative throughout. It does not shift. This burden is not onerous, for it only requires the establishing of a *prima facie* case, and the maintenance of that case to the end of the debate. It does not require proof beyond a reasonable doubt.

"The burden of the issue" is the duty resting intermittently upon both the affirmative and the negative to produce evidence in respect of the subsidiary questions arising out of the main proposition. Issues are the subsidiary question which *arise out of and are inherent in* the main proposition. As is said by Professor Ketcham, on page 29 of his work upon Argumentation and Debate:

"The burden of proof never 'shifts'; it is duty of producing evidence which 'shifts'."

The judge who is experienced and trained in argument will find no difficulty in following the zigzag course of the "burden of the issue," and in weighing the evidence, and in finally determining whether or not the affirmative has sustained its "burden

of proof." (In other words, he will *see* who wins, as clearly as will the judge in a track meet.)

Some confusion has arisen because of an attempted distinction between evidence and argument in debate. Definitions of evidence quoted from writers upon legal evidence, are not applicable to debate. In debate there is no distinction between matters of fact and matters of law. Evidence is the material or means of proof. Wharton says: "Proof is the sufficient reason for assenting to a proposition as true." Therefore, evidence consists in any material, argument, or data, which presents a "sufficient reason for assenting to a proposition as true." The argument and law presented to a Court constitute the means or material whereby the Court is convinced and persuaded that a certain *legal* proposition is true. In other words, argument and legal citation are evidentiary in respect of the proposition presented to the Court. Legal definitions of evidence restrict it to the means used to prove questions of *fact*. This is due entirely to the necessary distinction between fact and law in legal procedure. But, in debate, not only figures, data, and statistics, but also argument and authority, are all evidentiary. The "case" is the entity of which all these are the elements. Decisions in debate should be rendered upon the preponderance of the evidence, precisely as by a jury in a civil suit at law, with the qualification that evidence in debate is not limited to matters of fact, and that it shall be assumed that all possible evidence has been adduced, thus excluding judicial notice, knowledge and opinion, since the debate judge is restricted to the argument presented exactly as a jury is restricted to the evidence of fact before it. Here the similarity ceases; there is no analogy between the judge upon the bench and the judge of debate. The judge on the bench is bound to ascertain the "merits of the question" as presented by the pleadings; he will not hesitate to take up the cudgels in behalf of the weak advocate with a good cause. The judge, at law, is concerned with the merits of "causes," the jury with the merits of "cases." Similarly debate judges are solely concerned in the merits of the case made. To this extent debate must be artificial; it is necessarily so, for the time limit will not permit the debater to answer the arguments which occur to the judges, most of which have been discarded by a well-prepared team as irrelevant or immaterial, or at least as comparatively inconsequential. In a really

worth while debate, something must be discarded ; it is impossible to treat the subject exhaustively. ( It is for this reason that the opinions of the debate judges must be eliminated, just as unadduced evidence is to be ignored by a jury, upon the assumption that the debaters, in the one case, and counsel and Court, in the other, have correctly determined the fundamental issues involved. )

## THE JURYMAN'S VOTE IN DEBATE

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ELSEWHERE in this issue is published an article on "Judging Debates" by Mr. Hugh Neal Wells, of the University of Southern California. Here I take the liberty of commenting on that article, particularly for two reasons. In the first place this subject is so important that the misconceptions of that article should not be allowed to pass unchallenged in *THE QUARTERLY*. (And of course the article should be published. It represents the opinion of certain members of our profession. *THE QUARTERLY* is dedicated to the exchange of professional opinion without any censorship by the editor.) In the second place my position in regard to judging debates, as set forth in earlier issues of *THE QUARTERLY*, is under fire throughout this article, and is in one place included in the denunciation, "shocking to every moral sense and productive of false concepts."

Mr. Wells's position seems to be accurately and concisely ~~stated in the following sentences.~~ "The judges must pass upon the arguments presented as though they were exhaustive of the subject. The task of the judge, therefore, is to place himself in the position of one who has no opinions or knowledge of the subject, other than what has been presented, and to make the decision which any reasonable and intelligent person would predicate upon the premises. In other words he will say: A reasonable human being, wholly uninformed upon this subject, having heard this argument, ought to be convinced that the affirmative is right. Or, if the contrary: that the affirmative has failed to prove its case (has not sustained its burden of proof)." This is the clearest statement I have seen of the stand taken by those who desire a "juryman's vote" in contest debating, rather than a "critic's vote." Stated thus baldly, it ought almost to refute itself. (How anyone conversant with the conditions governing contest debating and the conditions governing jury trials, can seriously advocate the use of this method in contest debates, almost passeth understanding.)

(Just think of the pretense, the assumption, the make-believe, you have to go through to work this combination in contest debating.)

1. *Assume*: that the arguments presented are exhaustive of the subject. (Three high school or college students on each side have spoken from a public platform from ten to eighteen minutes each, on, let us say, federal ownership of telephone and telegraph lines.) This may over-tax your power to "make-believe," but it must be attempted.

2. *Assume*: that the judge will *assume* that he has no opinions or knowledge of the subject, other than what has been presented.

3. *Assume*: that a judge *can* determine "the decision which any reasonable and intelligent person would predicate upon the premises," which necessarily *assumes* that reasonable and intelligent persons would of course agree under the circumstances, which is manifestly absurd.

4. *Assume*: that the question for debate is "debatable," or reasonably well balanced. Mr. Wells says it should be, which is all well enough; but we all *know* that many questions actually are used in the schools and colleges of the country that are not well balanced.

5. *Assume*: that the burden of proof is actually on the affirmative team. It should be of course. Yet many questions are used in contest debate in which the burden of proof is really squarely on the negative, as, for instance, "Resolved; that America's entry into the world war was justified." Nor is it sufficient to say that questions should be debatable and properly worded. You may or may not be willing to penalize the debaters because the members of some graduate council, or committee of college presidents, or other question-making body, do not know how to word a question for debate. But that will not be enough. It may very well happen that a question that was perfectly satisfactory when worded, may be made actually undebatable or improperly worded, by changes in legislation or by the discovery of practically conclusive evidence on one side, in the period that elapses (sometimes six months or longer) before the debate is held. So these last two assumptions must always be made regardless of the truth in order to work this system with any fairness at all.

6. *Assume*: that proving a case in thirty minutes is no more difficult than pointing out in the same length of time that a case has not been proved. This is a vital assumption that may be very difficult, but it is required by the system—otherwise the negative always has an unfair advantage.

This may not be a complete summary of the pretense that this scheme requires, but it will, I trust, illustrate my position when I say that the hollow sham of this complex monstrosity of patently absurd assumptions is, to me, simply revolting, hardened corrupter of youth though I be!

But let us go further. Suppose we go through the motions, make all the assumptions, and play our parts without a single lapse into reality from beginning to end. The decision is rendered, say for the affirmative. What is it? Simply this: that considering all the above mentioned assumptions (and perhaps a few more), granting the truth of all these conditions (a number of which everyone in the hall may know to be utterly false) *(the affirmative side of the question is right!)* Does this mean the judges believe in the affirmative? No, the judges' beliefs and knowledge are eliminated, by hypothesis! It means that the evidence and argument presented by the affirmative side was stronger than that presented by the negative side. No, this is not quite correct.

→ This still smacks a bit of reality. It does not mean that the judge, in the light of his knowledge and experience in politics and economics actually believes in the evidence of the affirmative: but that he thinks that an intelligent and reasonable human being who did not know anything about politics or economics *would believe* in the evidence of the affirmative, that is, *assuming* so-and-so, etc., etc. Such a person would think under the circumstances that the evidence which the affirmative had discovered or which their coach, or their teachers, or parents, or neighbors, had discovered for them, was stronger than that discovered for or by the negative. But what of the debaters on the affirmative team? What have they done? They have presented this evidence and argument to the judges. They were sufficiently able to speak English, or to read English, to submit this case to the judges. There their responsibility ended. The judges do the rest. But did they themselves apparently write what they spoke or read? That is irrelevant under our system. They had the goods—that is a man who did not know anything about the question would think that

they had the goods—that is on certain assumptions, he would so think—at least the judges think that he ought to! (But did they know more about the question than the negative? Irrelevant.) Did they know how to analyze and explain the question better than the negative? Irrelevant and immoral. It raises the question of personal ability or skill in debate, and pure minded people do not think of such things. Were their attitude toward and relations with the audience more satisfactory? This has nothing to do with the case. They were submitting evidence and argument to an elaborately hypothetical board of judges, and their behavior was none of the audience's business. In fact their behavior was none of the judges' business either. Behavior clearly has to do with personal ability in debate (which is indecent and should not be thought of). Were they more courteous to their opponents, fairer in their treatment of the other side? Hush! Someone will hear you! Such immoral considerations must not be brought into this discussion. But were they better able to catch and expose the weaknesses in their opponents' position, and to defend their own case against attack? Immaterial and "shocking to every moral sense." Were the members of the affirmative team better speakers? Horrible! I can answer no more of your questions. They not only have no bearing on the case, but they painfully exhibit your depraved nature. Drop them; and go and fumigate your mind!

You see we must be concerned only with the strength of cases or the weight of evidence and argument, as these things would be evaluated by a type of person who simply does not exist in this world of gross reality in which we live and move and have our debates, i. e., a reasonable and intelligent judge of debate, having an intelligent and trained mind, wholly uninformed upon a great public question, having no knowledge or opinions upon a live question of taxation, or federal ownership, or liquor regulation, or labor disputes, other than the knowledge and opinions furnished him by a few student debaters in the short time at their disposal. And when we are trying to arrive at such a decision, deliberate consideration of the quality of the work done by two groups of student debaters (in studying, analyzing, organizing, presenting on the public platform, the material available on the question) is both irrelevant and morally shocking. The strength of cases and the weight of evidence and argument is significant

and pure; the honesty, industry, courtesy, skill, ability of *persons*, in study, in reasoning, in speaking, is insignificant and unholy. But, says Mr. Wells, the persons excelling in these matters will always present the stronger case. They may or may not. It obviously depends upon whether the question discussed is so worded as to *(be perfectly balanced)* and the material available for the discussion of precisely *(equal intrinsic strength)* on each side. We must *assume both* of these conditions to be always true—or else we must *assume* that the abler debaters *always* win the advantageous side on the toss of the coin which determines their position—or else we must *assume* (I hate to mention it in the presence of you good people) that they will *always* “make the worse appear the better cause.”

Consider the eleven questions which Mr. Lew R. Sarett uses in his article on “The Expert Judge in Debate” in the April, 1917, *QUARTERLY*. Only one of the eleven, the third, could properly be considered in making a decision under Mr. Wells’s system. And the *other ten* are the questions which actually bring out how much the students have profited by, how much they have been educated in, what has actually been accomplished by, the courses which Mr. Sarett, Mr. Wells, and the other teachers of argumentation and debate, are paid their salaries for teaching. If skill, or ability, or technique, or proficiency, in argumentation and debate, means “developing a wholly artificial style,” if “the attainment of forensic grace and technical skill” be not perfectly legitimate “as ends in themselves,” if “debating skill” means the use of “disingenuous and transferred logic” which “proves that a white sheet of paper is black,” if it means the adoption of a fallacious instead of a valid line of argument, or the “mere juggling with other men’s ideas,” why do the colleges and universities spend thousands of dollars a year to have it taught to innocent students, and how can self-respecting men be found who are willing to teach it?

Whether “there be no higher purpose than winning decisions” is not the problem—but, “on what basis should decisions be made?” granting that someone wants a decision in a contest debate. Of course debating contests add to mental equipment; of course debating is a most potent form of educational training. No one who is at all informed can doubt these statements. *(My point is that a decision should be made which is based upon how*



much the debaters appear to have been equipped and educated in this field of endeavor, and the decision should always be given to the team which shows superior attainment. I wish to emphasize, recognize, and reward industry and ability in this field of education. I wish to give the prizes frankly, regularly, exclusively, to superior ability in debating. And why not? Is it because this concept cannot be analyzed and defined sufficiently? Well isn't it as easy to define skill in debate as in landscape painting, story writing, or poetry? We have contests in these, and in scores of other lines of human activity, which no one would ever think of judging on any other basis than ability shown in the art concerned. "Unique" is hardly an apt word to apply to a method generally used in all such contests in other fields.

(Suppose we say ability in debate covers skill or proficiency in research, reasoning, and speaking?) These words are not of great importance. They seem reasonably convenient labels. Use others if you wish. We all do know, however, that good debating requires knowledge of the subject discussed, sound reasoning about this knowledge, and effective and oral presentation of the whole result to an audience. It is, of course, possible to sub-divide each of these and to give each sub-division a certain per cent, if one wants that sort of exercise. But it would be fruitless if not harmful for a judge to try it in contest debate. His mind should not be on such details. I agree with Mr. Wells's general position on percentage calculations. I see no reason why percentages should be given, even to the three phases mentioned above. (It is probably well, however, to mention these three in order that you may be understood to mean by "ability in debating," ability in the whole process, not simply in one phase of it, as speaking, for instance. But beyond that I see no reason to go. The important thing is that in reaching his decision, the judge shall think in terms of *ability of contestants* rather than in terms of strength of cases or weight of evidence.) Clearly a judge can do this without adopting a "percentage method, in fact or in effect." How much weight the judges shall give to each element, or whether or not all judges give the same amounts to the same elements are minor considerations. Instruct them minutely or not as you choose, probably basing your decision as to the amount of instruction upon your opinion as to how much the judge knows already about proper standards of criticism in debate. I have judged

scores of debates, have never received detailed instructions, have never made a percentage calculation, and have never given a decision on any other basis than the ability of the debaters as debaters. Mr. Sarett in his article already mentioned above lists eleven separate questions or elements for consideration, yet gives no percentages. The point is that if the judges consider these elements and think in terms of the ability of contestants, the debate *must be* won or lost by the industry and ability of the debaters.) On Mr. Wells's system the decision is only more or less remotely and hypothetically connected with industry and ability, and may well be given (in some cases *must be* given) on accidental elements, utterly regardless of industry or ability, in fact on grounds with which the debaters had nothing whatever to do.)

*Poor analogy*

May I illustrate the workings of the two systems by use of an analogy? Suppose a contest in landscape painting. Two pictures have been entered. One shows red cows, in white clover, under elm trees, on the banks of a stream, with the Green Mountains of Vermont in the background. The other shows white cows, in red clover, under oak trees, on the shore of a lake, with the prairies of Iowa as a background. Under the system I advocate we bring in a group of three experts in painting. We neither ask nor care whether they like red cows better than white, whether they are "Easterners" or "Westerners."

We are not concerned with their tastes in clovers or trees, or with their love for mountains or prairies. All we care about is their competency fairly and intelligently to estimate comparative *ability in painting*. They may think both pictures excellent, or both horrible examples of how not to paint. We do not care. We simply want to know which of the pictures represents, in their opinion, better workmanship. We do not ask the expert which he would take for the walls of his own study, if he had to take one, and take it quick. If we should he might very well say, "I do not like either of them. They are both very poor, but if I have to have one of them around, I'll take the one with the Green Mountains in the background. For I was born in Vermont! But as a matter of fact the other is a better example of painting. The man who did it is really a better painter." But we do not ask for this kind of a choice. We ask to have the better example of *painting* selected. And we of course need not ask for a statement of percentages given to line, color, or other elements.

Now apply Mr. Wells's system to the same contest. He brings in three intelligent men with trained minds, and says to them; "You see those pictures. Now assuming that the public generally holds that a picture of red cows, in white clover, under elm trees, on the banks of a stream, with mountains in the background, is a *prettier picture* than one which depicts white cows, in red clover, under oak trees, on the shore of a lake, with a background of prairies,—assuming all this, would a reasonable and intelligent human being who knew nothing whatever about cows, or clovers, or trees, or water, or mountains, or prairies,—would such a person, think you, if he had to decide in a very few minutes, necessarily decide that the artist from Iowa had presented a picture which demonstrated that the *general public is wrong* in its estimate of pastoral landscapes? If not the prize must go to the Vermont painter. And please remember that we are all ladies and gentlemen here, and do not allude to anything so immoral as the ability of these painters *to paint*. This contest must be kept free from such contaminating considerations." How profitable such contests among painters would be!

One further point and I am through. The question may well arise, "Why get so excited about a juryman's vote in contest debating, if it works all right in the court room?" How do the situations differ? In the first place the type of question almost universally used in contest debating (*public questions of policy*) are never tried before juries.<sup>1</sup> It is substantially accurate to say that jury questions are private questions of fact. Does A. owe B. a thousand dollars for a certain lot of hay? Did A. steal B's cow? The questions may be larger and less bucolic, but these represent the type. On such questions the absence of (or the laying aside of) all relevant knowledge or opinion, is easier to expect and to get.

In the second place the court allows substantially all the time either side wants for the presentation of the case. The time con-

<sup>1</sup> Questions of policy are tried out in deliberative assemblies of various sorts, and decided by what may be called a "legislator's vote," which is a very different kind of vote. Here there is no attempt to limit the consideration to evidence and argument adduced in any particular trial or hearing or discussion. The whole knowledge and opinion of the voter, where-so-ever gathered or when-so-ever formed, properly govern his decision. He votes as he believes *on the question*, regardless of what anyone has said or left unsaid. So far as we know, no one has ever advocated the use of this type of decision in contest debating.

sumed need not be equal for both sides, and from a day to a week may well be taken for the trial of a relatively small question of fact. In the contest debate about two hours is taken for the trial of a great question of public policy. Third, to help hold the jurymen exclusively to the consideration of evidence duly presented in this trial, we have their *oaths*, the careful *instructions* of the presiding judge, and their realization that an *actual question is really being decided* by them, that the property or liberty of fellowmen is actually at stake. And even with these safeguards how often the system fails to work, and the jury does actually decide contrary to the evidence in the trial, but in conformity with private opinions as to what ought to happen regardless of legal evidence. Or take this case for illustration of the bearing of jurymen's votes on our problem. Suppose a man interested in the standards of trial lawyers in Chicago courts, wishing to call attention to and to reward great examples of distinguished ability and high standards of conduct in court practice, should establish a series of prizes to be given to the law firms whose representatives show the highest order of ability in the work done in connection with cases in certain terms of certain courts each year in Chicago. A committee is appointed by the American Bar Association to hear the trials and award the prizes. That the committee should be composed of others than expert lawyers is unthinkable, lawyers of ability and professional ideals, probably from other cities. Now, can any one seriously hold that the duty of this committee is to give the prizes to the lawyers who *win* their cases, or that their duty is to put themselves into an imaginary jury box and give the prizes to the lawyers who would have *won their cases* if these judges actually had constituted the jury? This would be deciding *on the cases*, and it obviously has no necessary, vital connection with the professional ability, ideals, or conduct of the lawyers concerned. The question for the jury is; Has A's *client* a valid claim against B's *client*? The question for our committee of judges is: Does the work which A has done in this trial, when judged by proper professional standards, show him to be a better lawyer than B? In deciding this matter the validity of the claim of A's client, as determined either by a real or an imaginary jury, is, if not utterly irrelevant, certainly only of minor importance. Judgments based on results obtained in cases could reward and promote proper standards of ability, skill,

conduct, performance, only *indirectly* and only on the assumption that the better lawyer always somehow presents the *case that wins*.

And this reminds me—Mr. Wells writes: “An awkward, rail-splitting Lincoln, with all his rhetorical deficiencies [I wonder what they were. I did not know he had any.], but nevertheless with the mind and stumbling ability to express logical and convincing thought in such a manner as to meet and overcome the case of his opponents, surely is entitled to the decision.” But “judged by results” on the case, he did not get the decision in his most celebrated debate. Douglas went to the Senate and Lincoln stayed at home. Lincoln “judged by results,” by his “power of conviction and persuasion” was a failure compared to the shifty and bombastic Douglas. He did not get results, he failed to convince and persuade; his case did not win. But honestly I believe that a board of experts in debate would have been depraved enough to have given him the prize *as a debater*, to have decided that he had *superior ability in debate* (in spite of his rhetorical deficiencies). And what a scandalous example that would have been for the young debaters of Lincoln’s day!

# EDITORIAL

## WHY IS A BIBLIOGRAPHY?

THERE has recently been issued by the United States Bureau of Education, through the government printing office at Washington, bulletin 1917, No. 2, entitled "Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools." It is a "report by the National Joint Committee on English representing the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association and the National Council of Teachers of English, compiled by James Fleming Hosc, Chairman of the Committee." We reprint in full elsewhere in this issue (without comment for the present) the section of the report dealing with Oral Expression. The complete bulletin (181 pages) may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., for twenty cents.

The report contains a twenty-two page bibliography divided into sections under various headings. There is one section which occupies a fraction of one page headed "Oral Expression." It contains eighteen items; eleven books and bulletins, seven articles in periodicals. Periodicals did we say? That is wrong. The references are to articles in *a periodical*. Yes, *The English Journal*! How did you guess it? Oh, you knew Mr. Hosc was editor and owner of *The English Journal*? Is that so? It is not mentioned in the bulletin. He is referred to as "Chairman of the Committee" on the cover, as "professor of English in the Chicago Normal School and a special collaborator in the Bureau of Education" by Commissioner Claxton in the letter of transmittal, and as "Secretary, National Council of Teachers of English, and Chairman National Joint Committee on the Reorganization of English in the Secondary Schools" under his signature at the end of the preface. But the fact that he is owner and editor of *The English Journal* does not appear so far as we have been

able to find. But now that you remind us of it, we do remember something of the sort.

But to get back to this unique bibliography. The seven exclusive references to articles in *The English Journal* consist of three whose titles show specific dealing with secondary school problems and four of apparently more general application. Since April, 1915, the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING has carried eight main articles shown by their titles to deal specifically with secondary school problems, and eighty-one main articles from whose titles one might infer more general application, but all dealing with some problem connected with speech. None of them are mentioned in this "personally conducted" bibliography. But *The English Journal* and THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL are not the only journals in which such articles may be found, as may be noticed by reference to the Periodicals section of any issue of the QUARTERLY. But for some reason none of these other journals seem to have qualified for a place in this cute, little, "home-made" bibliography. Probably these other journals do not mind; they are not particularly concerned with the subject on which this is ostensibly a genuine bibliography. We do mind. It is our business to mind.

THE QUARTERLY is the only periodical in the country devoted exclusively to the field of speech. It publishes, of course, more material dealing with oral expression than can be found in any other periodical. Anyone who does not know of THE QUARTERLY's offerings in this field is not competent to prepare a worth-while bibliography on oral expression. Maybe the writers for THE QUARTERLY are no good. But a number of the men mentioned in this "private-stock" bibliography not only have published in THE QUARTERLY, but have published *more* in THE QUARTERLY than in *The English Journal*. It must be that only the articles they publish in *The English Journal* are significant! Is that the answer? If it is not sufficient quantity, nor acceptable authorship, it must be that the quality of the articles in THE QUARTERLY render them unfit for this intimate "family-circle" bibliography. How can we comment on that without sacrificing our well-known modesty and embarrassing everyone with our blushes? We shall have to risk it. There seems, in all seriousness, only one answer to be made. It might be phrased variously, but this is the necessary substance of it. If any man can serious-

ly consider the articles in THE QUARTERLY which have to do with oral expression and then honestly decide that *none* of them are helpful or significant, and can then decide that some of these articles in *The English Journal* are helpful or significant, he is not only unfit to prepare a bibliography on oral expression, but he is unworthy of being taken seriously on any question in education.

And so we come again to the question with which this editorial is headed. No gentle reader, we have not overlooked *that* either. The bibliography has no little *adv.* label tucked away at the bottom, and, moreover, the bulletins of the Bureau of Education do not carry advertisements. They do not have to; the government pays the bills.

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#### OLD NUMBERS OF THE QUARTERLY

**I**N answer to a request published in THE QUARTERLY some months ago, a number of subscribers have donated to the National Association, and forwarded to The Banta Company, back numbers of THE QUARTERLY which they could spare without breaking their files. Such action is, of course, giving some financial assistance to the Association but more than that it makes possible the possession of a complete file of THE QUARTERLY by some subscribers, perhaps libraries, who must otherwise have incomplete files. We trust that all readers will send in any extra copies that may be in their possession and for which they do not have any use. Please do not throw them away. It is now necessary to charge \$1.00 each for any of the numbers in Volume I, and the price of other issues will be raised as the stock of copies on hand falls to a certain point.

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#### QUARTERLY DATES

**A**T the annual convention in December a recommendation will probably be made to the effect that the publication date of THE QUARTERLY be changed from January, April, July, and October, to January, March, June, and October. Such a change would bring all the dates within the school year, would prevent the loss of many copies of the July number, due to the uncertainty of vacation addresses, and would probably make easier the secur-



ing of copy, and also doubtless promote the professional service of *THE QUARTERLY*, by thus avoiding a vacation number.

Some readers may be thinking that announced dates of publication make little difference to a journal that has gotten out of the habit of appearing either in the month announced or in the following month. The appearance of the April number in June and of the July number in September was certainly regrettable. A full and complete explanation of these delays would take up much time and space and do little good. They are due fundamentally (this word is used with apologies to Professors Woolbert and Hunt) to Bismarck's influence upon European history. You see, early in April the United States declared war on Germany, and the editor of *THE QUARTERLY* sent the copy for the April number to the Banta Company. The result of the conjunction of these two great events was what the speech psychologists might call a "complex." The focus was at Menasha, Wisconsin, where a number of near-catastrophies took place in connection with moving into a new plant, doing "war-work" on government military printing, and finding and training new crews to take the places of approximately two-thirds of the Banta force who were patriotically impelled "to go after the Kaiser" in one form or other of military service. This delayed the April number, which delayed the copy of certain articles promised for July (whose authors waited to read the April articles) which delayed the July number, which was also further delayed by the "complex" being not yet resolved—and so on—we trust not quite *ad infinitum*. Anyway it was a long and heart-rending tale. The business manager and the editor have heard it through and have melted. We now respectfully ask you to melt without hearing more of the ghastly details. We have every assurance that it will never happen again.

# THE FORUM

## METHODS AND THE TEACHER

**T**HE book reviews under New Books in *THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL* are always of interest, particularly when we happen to be already acquainted with the book in question. The review of Professor Lee Emerson Bassett's *Handbook of Oral Reading* (Houghton Mifflin) which appeared in the April *JOURNAL* brought forward a question which somehow is kept constantly uppermost in the minds of most teachers, the question of methods in teaching.

On the whole, the reviewer heartily recognized the splendid qualities of the book; but in speaking of the Program of Recitations which appears in the back of the Handbook, she said:

"This plan has too many written assignments for an oral class, too much time to be spent in learning about the author—where he lived, where he died, etc.—rather than the message and inspiration of the text. Must we follow this dry-as-dust, antiquated study of literature in order to claim a right to scholastic existence with English departments?"

Incidentally, out of sixty-four lesson assignments, only twelve are written. These are chiefly resumes of the most important chapters in the book. As for the "dry-as-dust, antiquated study of literature" having to do with the lives of authors, only two such assignments are to be found out of sixty-four, numbers 4 and 53 about Irving and Sheridan. The point, however, on which I take issue with the reviewer is this: granting that the study of an author's life in connection with his works may be antiquated as to method, it is not necessarily flat, stale, and unprofitable as to results.

I have found that an unexpected amount of interest in an author's works can be aroused by the right kind of presentation of the author's life, a presentation in which the relationship between life and works is kept in mind, and from which every fact

that does not illumine the thought or spirit of the author's writing is omitted.

An article appearing in the *English Journal* for June, entitled "Literature, the teacher, and the Teens,"\* is particularly suggestive in discussing the question. I quote from it:

".....biographical facts can be so presented as to be of immense service in stimulating interest. I do not mean dates or the periods into which some text-book divides a man's life, but the vital things that helped or made him what he was. Or perhaps a mere incident connected with a writing will help to make the students want to read it. Tell them, for example, that during the Napoleonic War the Scotch poet, Thomas Campbell, was arrested on suspicion of being a traitor; when he was brought before the court his only defense was to hand the magistrate the manuscript of a poem. The magistrate read it and instantly released him. The poem was that stirring and splendid battle chant, 'Ye Mariners of England.' Immediately they will want you to read it to them."

But supposing that, for the moment, we entirely separate the author from his work, and, imagining ourselves in our public speaking class, make this assignment for tomorrow: In the books on the reserve shelf you will find a great deal of information about the life of Washington Irving. Let us see if out of these dead ashes of facts, you can bring Irving to life again, make him actually live for us here in the classroom. Try to make us see the twinkle in his eye, feel again the charm of his personality, and be conscious of his fine idealism by describing definite incidents in his life which show that these qualities belonged to him.

I venture to say that the effect on the class will be a deeper appreciation of Irving's writings. Perhaps, too, the result will reestablish our faith in certain antiquated methods or perhaps it will make us realize that methods, antiquated or not, are, after all, dependent upon the personality of the teacher for success or failure. Age-old methods are frequently fruitful of splendid results, when sometimes even the newest methods fail in the final test.

To go back to the Handbook; the fact that the book reflects the personality of the teacher, of a finely inspired teacher, makes

\* Waitman Barbe, "Literature, the Teacher, and the Teens," *English Journal*, June, 1917.

it thoroughly teachable. Mr. Bassett combines a scholarly attitude toward his subject with a practical handling of his material, a combination which is the keynote of success in teaching.

ANNA LAURA STEVICK.

San Rafael High School,  
San Rafael, California.

#### SPEECH CLINIC FOR SOLDIERS

**T**HE following very significant news article clipped from the *New York Times* of September 30, 1917, seems well worth reproducing in full.

In view of the fact that thousands of American soldiers are likely to return from the front with their powers of speech impaired or destroyed by gunshot wounds of the mouth, the jaw, and the neck, great importance is being attached by the medical authorities to the establishment in New York of a free clinic where, for the first time in this country, all branches of treatment bearing upon the cure and correction of speech disorders will be promoted and coördinated upon a practical and thoroughly scientific basis.

Financed by the private philanthropic endeavor of a number of public-spirited citizens, this institution has been incorporated as the New York Clinic for Speech Defects, with Dr. Herbert L. Wheeler, a member of the Medical Board of the National Council of National Defense as President. It will be at 143 East Thirty-seventh Street and will be opened to the public early in October under the medical direction of Dr. James Sonnett Greene, a speech specialist, who has done extensive scientific work both here and abroad for all forms of speech and voice diseases.

Not only medical authorities, but scientists from all over the country, among them Thomas A. Edison and Dr. Abraham Jacobi have given their support to the enterprise as a valuable preparedness and defense measure for the cure of soldiers and sailors who may require the treatment, which this clinic by combining all the medical and scientific facilities bearing upon speech correction and diseases of the jaw, will be able to give.

The staff of the institution will be composed of a number of competent specialists who have volunteered their services gratis. Actively identified with the conduct of the clinic as members of the Medical and Consultant Board will be Dr. Abraham Jacobi, Thomas A. Edison, Judge Franklin Chase Hoyt of the Children's Court, Dr.

John MacKenty, Dr. Phillip D. Kerrison, Dr. Herbert L. Wheeler, Dr. George M. Parker, and Dr. James Sonnett Greene. The Board of Directors is composed of George A. Hurty, Henry H. Law, Thomas Healy, Wilson Hatch Tucker, William H. Brown, Wallace Gilpatrick, Frederick C. Boynton, Dr. Herbert L. Wheeler, Dr. George M. Parker, and Dr. James Sonnett Greene.

Aside from devoting themselves to the task of restoring the normal powers of speech to soldiers rendered mute by gun and shell shot, the members of the Medical Board will also develop extensively the treatment of speech defects often inherited or acquired in childhood, such as mumbling, stuttering, and lisping and other diseases which heretofore have been practically neglected by the medical profession of this country. According to most recent estimates at least 500,000 people in this country are stutterers.

At this clinic, too, practically for the first time in America special provisions will be made to cure foreigners of the accent by treating the accent as a defect of speech. Inasmuch as correct speech in any tongue is unobtainable without thorough knowledge of the fundamental sounds which make up the words of the language, a special department of the clinic will offer foreigners a course of instruction in the fundamental sounds of the English language, so that before learning to express themselves they will have first mastered the basic sounds correctly. By doing so the foreigner will speak English as English should be spoken, and not with a French, German, or Italian accent.

The chief incentive for the establishment of the clinic at the present time, however, was created by the appalling condition of so many thousands of soldiers on the French front, who have been reduced to a semblance of idiocy by the loss or impairment of the normal powers of speech. Professor W. R. Houston of the University of Georgia, who recently returned from abroad after an extensive study of the effects of shell shock upon the nervous system, described one of its effects as follows:

"The vocal cords may be paralyzed and the tongue can no longer be protruded so that the patient is entirely mute, unable to make the slightest sound, to whistle or to blow, or even to imitate the movements of the lips in speech. His breathing muscles are contracted so that he cannot draw a long breath. In milder cases there is a stuttering to a degree of almost complete unintelligibility."

Medical observers with the various armies have commented extensively upon the loss of speech due to shell shock. Dr. Giuseppe Pansera of the Italian Army wrote as follows: "At first the soldiers become mute, but after a course of speech treatment they pass from a condition of monosyllabic speech to normal speech. A great many of them become afflicted with stuttering, a defect which they did not have before." A French observer, Dr. Liebault, in writing about war aphonia, says:

"The soldiers traced their defective voice and speech condition to their stay in the trenches, where they suffered from fatigue, cold, and wet. The condition would begin with a cold, developing into bronchitis with hoarseness and finally loss of voice and speech. Remarkable results were obtained through proper voice and speech re-education." Dr. Milligan with the English army, in writing from the front of voice and speech disorders, says, "The worst type of cases are those where the soldier has been temporarily buried as the result of a shell explosion and has been rescued very much shocked. These cases must be properly treated, otherwise they remain mute."

The French and English Governments are daily becoming more concerned about the defects in speech which have been produced in their armies since the war began. Efforts are being made to bring about complete cures, and when a complete cure is impossible at least such an improvement in the condition of the victim that he may become a useful member of society, able to make himself understood by his fellowmen. Last year there were 35,000 soldiers in the French hospitals alone who suffered from all manner of jaw conditions, the deformities ranging from loss of teeth to a complete loss or demolition of the jaw. Discussing this situation with a reporter of *The New York Times*, Dr. James Sonnett Greene, Medical Director of the new clinic, said:

"It was quite interesting to note that the sufferers did not complain much about their physical suffering, but that they constantly deplored the fact of their inability to make themselves understood. They all suffered from various forms of defective speech. They all exemplified concretely that the human being, male as well as female, loves to talk and be understood at the same time. After all, the importance of speech cannot be overestimated, as it is really the fundamental vehicle of your existence. A public medical defective speech clinic is an absolute necessity, as a preparedness measure for the cure of our military body who will surely require such treatment.

"The only way to eliminate the different defects found is through special and co-relative treatment for the causes which combine to create the defect. Dr. Wheeler has been very much impressed for years with the numberless cases of defective speech caused by dental anomalies such as tooth, mouth, and jaw malformations which came under his observation. He felt that the only way for dental patients who were suffering from defective speech due to mouth anomalies was to have them treated by speech specialists as well as dental specialists. For this reason Dr. Wheeler has exerted a great deal of energy in helping to establish this clinic where all phases of treatment related to the correction of speech, directly or even indirectly, will be properly coördinated."

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**T**HE public schools of Fall River, Massachusetts, are this year installing special classes in speech work. Dr. Walter B. Swift of the Harvard Graduate School of Medicine has been appointed Medical Supervisor of Speech Classes. Work will be done in phonetics, stuttering, and mental defects.

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#### THE THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION

**T**HE third annual convention of the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking will be held at the Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday, December 27, 28, and 29, 1917. The interest, and even enthusiasm, shown by members of the Association in assisting in arranging the program, has greatly exceeded that of any other year. Most helpful letters of advice and suggestion have been received by the President from teachers in all parts of the country. Their receipt is hereby acknowledged with many thanks. Of course all of the suggestions could not be incorporated into a program for a three day convention. After much correspondence and considerable personal conference with members during the past month or two, the President announces the following program, which has been determined upon as one which will meet the wishes of the majority, will represent all sections of our field of education, and will serve as an excellent basis for the most helpful series of conferences ever held by the teachers in this field. Rather strong statement, do you think? Read the following, and see! Of course the proof of the pud-

ding is not on the menu card. You must yourself partake of the feast.

You will not have to miss any school work in order to attend. A holiday trip will do you good. Expenses will be low. (The rates at the Auditorium Hotel for those attending this convention: Room for one, without bath, \$1.50 and \$2.00; with bath, \$2.50 and \$3.00. Room for two, without bath, \$2.50 and \$3.00; with bath, \$4.00, \$5.00, and \$6.00.) Professionally you can gain much from matters mentioned on this program, and from the private chats with just the people whom you would like to meet and ask about various things.

The acceptances of some of the people mentioned on this program have not yet been received. Some of them may not be able to accept. Some who have accepted, or who may accept, may, of course, be prevented, by something arising between now and late December, from appearing as scheduled. In that sense this is a tentative program, as any must be which is published in October. But *quantity* and *quality* will be substantially that shown on this program.

### THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF ACADEMIC TEACHERS OF PUBLIC SPEAKING

*Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, Ill.*

December 27, 28, 29, 1917

#### PROGRAM

#### THURSDAY FORENOON

#### GENERAL SESSION: 9—12

1. The President's Address ..... James L. Lardner
2. The Essentials of a Beginning College Course in Public Speaking ..... Harry Garfield Houghton, University of Wisconsin  
*Open Discussion:* Leader—Lew R. Sarett, University of Illinois
3. Public Speaking Courses That Should Be given in the High School ..... Walter E. Peck, White Plains, N. Y. High School  
*Open Discussion:* Leader—Charles A. Dawson, Niagara Falls High School

#### THURSDAY AFTERNOON

#### SECTIONS: 2—4:30

#### SECTION ONE

#### *Interpretative Reading and Impersonation*

Maud May Babcock, University of Utah, Chairman

1. Interpretative Reading: How to Stimulate the Imagination in Interpretative Reading.

Charles M. Newcomb, Ohio Wesleyan University



*Open Discussion:* Leader—Clara B. Williams, Smith College

2. Interpretative Reading and Impersonation: Where the First Leaves Off and the Second Begins. (Illustrated by oral presentation of several literary classics.)

Katherine Jewell Everts

*Open Discussion:* Leader—J. W. Wetzol, Yale University

## SECTION TWO

### *Speech Construction and Argumentation*

Clarion D. Hardy, Northwestern University, Chairman

1. The Rhetoric of Oratory (Persuasive Speech) and How to Teach it

Frank M. Rarig, Minnesota University

*Open Discussion:* Leader—Edwin DuBois Shurter, University of Texas

2. Argumentation for Scientific Students.

N. M. Fogg, University of Nebraska

*Open Discussion:* Leader—R. D. T. Hollister, University of Michigan

## SECTION THREE

### *Defective Speech and Voice Training*

S. H. Clark, University of Chicago, Chairman

1. Common Voice Defects; The Cause and the Cure of Each.  
Dr. Floyd S. Muckey

*Open Discussion:* Leader—Teresa A. Dacey, Director Speech Improvement Classes, Boston, Massachusetts

2. How to Improve the Student's Resonance. A Report on Concrete Cases ..... Glenn N. Merry, University of Iowa

*Open Discussion:* Leader—Guy B. Muchmore, Cornell University

THURSDAY EVENING

THEATER, OPERA, ETC.

FRIDAY FORENOON

GENERAL SESSION 9—12

1. Ways and Means of Getting a Student Before a Real Audience. A report of practical results.

H. B. Gislason, University of Minnesota

*Open Discussion:* Leader—William Hawley Davis, Bowdoin College

2. Standards of Grading Courses in Public Speaking: Should we grade on the skill of the student or on his intellectual grasp of principles, or on both?

Windsor P. Daggett, University of Maine

*Open Discussion:* Leader—H. B. Gough, De Pauw University

FRIDAY AFTERNOON

COMMITTEE MEETINGS: 1—3

GENERAL SESSION: 3—5

1. Educational Journalism, or the Function of Professional Educational Periodicals.

J. McKean Cattell

2. Report of the Standing Committees and of the Treasurer
3. Promotion Work.

H. S. Woodward, Western Reserve University

4. Report of the Special Committees.

FRIDAY EVENING

SEVEN O'CLOCK

*Dinner and Social Evening*

(Detailed Announcements Later)

SATURDAY FORENOON

SECTIONS: 9—12

#### SECTION ONE

##### *High School Problems*

Sherman Conrad, Culver Military Academy, Chairman

1. Problems of Interscholastic Debating.

Andrew Thomas Weaver, Whitewater, Wis., Normal School

*Open Discussion:* Leader—Mabel P. Yeoman, Trenton, N. J., High School

2. Contests in Reading and Declamation.

Lee Emerson Bassett, Leland Stanford Jr. University

*Open Discussion:* Leader—Bertha Forbes Herring, Nicholas Senn High School, Chicago

3. Interscholastic Extemporaneous Contests, A. E. Rutenbeck, Washington High School, Milwaukee

*Open Discussion:* Leader—J. L. Highsaw, Central High School, Memphis, Tenn.

#### SECTION TWO

##### *Research and Graduate Work*

James A. Winans, Cornell University, Chairman

1. Report of Research Committee
2. Facilities and Opportunities for Research and Advanced Degrees. Brief reports from different Colleges and Universities

## SECTION THREE

*Dramatics*

Frederick Henry Koch, University of North Dakota, Chairman

1. Staging of Plays and Pageants. Jack Randall Crawford, Yale.

*Open Discussion:* Leader—Charles M. Holt, Minneapolis, President of the National Speech Arts Association

2. College Dramatics and the "Community Theater" Movement. Alfred G. Arvold, North Dakota Agricultural College

*Open Discussion:* Leader—Susan B. Davis, Kent, Ohio, State Normal School

SATURDAY AFTERNOON      GENERAL SESSION: 1:30—3:30

*Departmental Problems*

(Heads of Departments particularly urged to be present)

1. Terminology; Department and Courses.

J. W. Ryan, Grinnell College

*Open Discussion:* Leader—Warren Choate Shaw, Dartmouth College

2. Prerequisites and Inter-departmental Relations: John C. French, Johns Hopkins University

*Open Discussion:* Leader—D. W. Redmond, College of the City of New York

ADJOURNMENT

## ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ENGLISH COUNCIL

**T**HE annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English will be held at the Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, Ill., on the Friday and Saturday after Thanksgiving, November 30 and December 1. The full program is published in *The English Journal* for October. A copy of the program, or further information and particulars concerning the approaching meeting, may be had by mail on request to Professor James F. Hosic, Secretary, 68th St. and Stewart Ave., Chicago, Ill.

## CORRIGENDA

Read *speaking* for *spelling* in the title and page headlines of Professor J. S. Gaylord's article "Teaching Reading and Speaking as Functions of Personality," Q. J. P. S., III, 265-72 (July, 1917).

# PERIODICALS

*WHY CANDIDATES FOR OFFICERS' COMMISSIONS WERE REJECTED*, *Army and Navy Journal*, September 15, 1917.

The field of public speaking and the teachers of public speaking have lately secured a new ally, the military men of the country. The government officials in charge of the officers' training camps are aware of a few facts with which our profession has long been familiar. Inasmuch as most of us are fighting for the cause of public speaking more or less alone, the moral support given us and our work by the military men in a recent issue of *The Army and Navy Journal* (New York, September 15, 1917) ought to be of value.

The article, which voices the opinions of Professor W. Peacock of the Peacock Military College, Brig. Gen. W. S. Scott, U. S. A., and Brig. Gen. H. P. McCain, is an analysis of the failure of many of the men to receive commissions in the training camps. Most of the causes of failure enumerated are directly attributable to a lack of training in public speaking. The following excerpts make interesting reading:

"Perhaps the most glaring fault noted in aspirants to the Officers' Reserve Corps and the one that might be corrected by proper attention in our high schools, preparatory schools, and colleges, is what might be characterized by the general word "slouchiness." I refer to what might be termed a mental and physical indifference. I have observed at Camp Funston many otherwise excellent men who have failed because in our school system sufficient emphasis is not placed on the avoidance of this mental and physical handicap. . . . At Camp Funston and other military camps throughout the country, mental alertness, accuracy in thinking and acting, clearness in enunciation, sureness and ease of carriage and bearing must be insisted on for two reasons; that success may be assured as nearly as human effort can guarantee it with the material and the means at

hand, and that priceless human lives may not be criminally sacrificed. Only by the possession of the qualities referred to does one become a natural leader.

"A great number of men have failed at Camp Funston because of inability to articulate clearly. A man who cannot impart his ideas to his command in clear, distinct language and with sufficient volume of voice to be heard reasonably far, is not qualified to give commands upon which life will depend. Many men disqualified by this handicap might have become officers under their country's flag had they been properly trained in school and college. It is to be hoped, therefore, that more emphasis will be placed upon the basic principles of elocution in the training of our youth. Even without prescribed training in elocution a great improvement could be wrought by the instructors in our schools and colleges, regardless of the subject, insisting that all answers be given in a loud, clear, well-rounded voice, which, of course, necessitates the opening of the mouth and the free movement of the lips. It is remarkable how many excellent men suffer from this handicap, and how difficult and impossible it is to correct this after the formative years of life. . . .

"In addition to this physical disability and slouchiness is what might be termed the slouchiness of mental attitude. Many men fail to measure up to the requirements set for our Officers' Reserve because they have not been trained to appreciate the importance of accurate thinking. Too many schools are satisfied with an approximate answer to a question. Little or no incentive is given to increased mental effort to coördinate one's ideas and present them clearly and unequivocally. Insistence upon decision in thought and expression must never be lost sight of. . . . Three months is too short a time in which to teach an incorrigible "beater-around-the-bush" that there is but one way to answer a question, oral or written, and that is positively, clearly, and accurately. . . ."

Would it not be wise for us to use this bit of ammunition in our attacks, individually and collectively, on the "enemy forces" with whom we must often contend, Administrative Indifference and Professional Hostility?

LEW R. SARETT,  
University of Illinois.

**SPEECH DEFECTS.** BY THERESA A. DACEY. *Educational Standards*, June, 1917, p. 106.

The following paragraphs are clipped from the above mentioned article, which is apparently a paper read to the teachers of the lower grades in the Boston public schools. Miss Dacey is director of Speech Improvement Classes.

"Since we cannot make a scientific study of normal speech in its entirety without a careful analytical study of its several elements, we must decide upon the nature of these elements. They are of three distinct bases: the medical or physical, moral, and mental. Let us regard these, as they are in normal speech: *positive* in existence, *responsive* in reception of varying stimuli, *permissive of prompt initiative*, and *accurate in execution of all the speech faculties*. Of course, the result is normal speech developed in a state of ease and happiness.

The same bases of the medical or physical, moral, and mental exist in defective speech but they are negative; so negative, in some cases, that we are face to face with mutism, apparent mutism, and weak voice. According as the degree of negation in the physical, moral, and mental bases be existent or chargeable, so will be the degree of defectiveness. Hence we find stuttering, cluttering, negligent speech, chronic serious hesitation, slovenliness, falsetto voice, excessive slowness, excessive rapidity, monotony, chronic hoarseness, etc., and *backwardness in all oral work but especially in reading and spelling*.

Of greater import however is the fact that in all this negative condition we find a positive element: in each case a peculiar mental state which may be supersensitiveness, discouragement, sadness, fear, diffidence, superanxiety for immediate correction, and in the most trying case, stubbornness. Retardation in regular school life, in nearly every case, varying from one to four years, has frequently resulted in bitterness and an estimate that the schools have done nothing toward the development or happiness of such minds, regardless of the fact that equal opportunities were distributed to all. The impossibility of equal development was due to the negative condition. It is pitiable, nevertheless a fact, that many of normal intellect and strong moral fiber have progressed into the high schools, colleges and even professional life, and business, and are now seeking correction of their speech defects. During this term four such cases have come within my experience: cases of four boys, one of whom

has graduated from college and has been forced to give up further advancement because of his defect; one longing to enter the ministry and uncertain of gaining entry; one ashamed to enter the high school; and one in business whose advancement is retarded through inability to speak normally. All are graduates of the public schools. They cannot afford to pay for the necessary treatment and those who would willingly give it gratis are unable to give due assistance through lack of time and impoverished energy after a strain of five hours daily devoted to the group work.

In its broadest sense, education by the public schools demands the correction in so far as is possible of the physical, moral, and mental defects of the children. Some speech defects seem to originate in the lower grades, but, I am sure, a predisposition to them existed during infancy and early childhood, and the new environment with its several areas of opposition, such as that of strange children, strange teacher, strange activities, which, though affording no obstacle or disadvantage to a strong child, checks in no small measure the progress of an abnormal or weak child."

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*THE NEW EMPHASIS OF ORAL ENGLISH.* BY CLARENCE STRATTON. *The English Journal*, September, 1917, p. 463.

Mr. Stratton, of the Central High School, St. Louis, Missouri, makes in this article a plea for the recognition of the fact that teachers serve as models for the pupils and that therefore teachers should have good voices, should use correct pronunciation, and should know how to speak and read. He also comments on the "crime" of unintelligently located and constructed school rooms and auditoriums. His principal thesis, however, concerns the desirability of more emphasis on three types of training: First, memorization and delivery of "great passages of literature." (Probably many, if not most, well-trained and experienced teachers of reading and speaking will quarrel with his statement that this should be first "in time, if not in importance.") Second, reciting or reading original compositions; third, talking from notes or an outline.

Mr. Stratton states and reiterates that "training in speech should be a regular and prescribed part of the English course of every educational institution in America." I move to amend by striking out the word "English"! In answer to the anticipated

objection "that the usual members of an English department are not fitted to do such work," he asks to be "let off with the mere retort, 'If they are not fitted to give training in speech, they should be.' " Really this won't do. There is much more to be said—or would be if the proposition were actually "up for discussion." But the whole educational world, from primary grades to university graduate school, is moving so rapidly away from this position that it is hardly worth while now to insist upon the reasons why the march is going in the right direction.

In the discussion of the statement that speech training should be regular and prescribed, the following sentences occur:

"I know of the pleas made for the nervous, the unready, the slow, the stutterers. . . . I know it's a terrible infliction to make stutterers speak, especially terrible to the listeners. On the other hand, a great many lazy adolescents can be cured of chronic nervousness by a shock administered by some hard-hearted, strict teacher who believes no more in coddling some youngsters than truthful physicians believe in pampering overcareful invalids. The few pathological cases need no more be considered by us than are the few physically unfit when gymnastic courses are introduced into schools."

This is positively dangerous. Any "usual member of an English department," hard-hearted or otherwise, who attempts to cure chronic nervousness by *shock*, ought to land in jail. The usual member of an English department is necessarily and properly as incapable of *sorting out* the "few pathological cases" and prescribing the proper treatment of nervousness and stuttering in speech, even for those cases she would decide were non-pathological as she would be of selecting or prescribing for varying degrees of physical unfitness in the gymnasium. Such work should be done only by a carefully trained specialist in *speech*—one who is trained in physiology, anatomy, psychology, phonetics, elocution. Whether such a person knows anything about English composition and literature is utterly irrelevant, and whether or not such a person can speak and read the English language is relatively unimportant.

J. M. O'N.



**NEW STANDARDS IN ORATORY.** BY FRANCES M. PERRY,  
*Educational Review*, June, 1917, p. 26.

In this article Miss Perry, of the University of Arizona, advocates extemporaneous speaking as the only proper aim of instruction in public speaking. "In the first place the public and the English teacher should quite steadily see the goal to be that of training for extemporaneous speaking." She objects to artificiality and affectation in speaking, which she calls elocution, and to false ornament, sophistry, bombast, insincerity, absence of honest conviction and straight thinking, which she calls adaptation to the audience or oratory. Her closing paragraph is as follows: "If we give adaptation of speech to hearer and elocution so small a place in the teaching of public speaking, the work of that department wears the strangely familiar look of composition, and composition plus constant practice in extemporaneous expression before an audience, is what it rightly is."

## NEW BOOKS

*Parliamentary Procedure.* BY ROLLO L. LYMAN AND FRANK W. DIGNAN, Chicago: LaSalle Extension University, 1917. Paper, pp. 30. \$0.25.

This pamphlet contains a complete account of the steps to be taken and the business to be transacted at the first three meetings of a society just being organized, a model constitution and by-laws, a concise but complete discussion of parliamentary motions, and an excellent chart which clearly indicates the proper handling of motions and questions of all kinds. It ought to be very useful indeed to teachers who wish to give instruction in parliamentary law either in regular classes or in student organizations.

J. M. O'N.

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*Argumentation and Debate.* BY JAMES MILTON O'NEILL, Craven Laycock and Robert Leighton Scales. New York, MacMillan Co., 1917. Pp. 495 XVI. Cloth \$1.50.

Laycock and Scales' *Argumentation and Debate* was published in 1904. Professor James Milton O'Neill now offers a complete revision of that work. The revision presents the same general arrangement as the former work, retaining the four sub-topics of Argumentation;—namely, Invention, Selection, Arrangement, and Presentation. As stated in the preface of the revision, "The volume is the result of a complete re-writing" of the former work. Amplification and restatement have been made in parts dealing with "the methods and precepts which argumentation has borrowed from logic, law, rhetoric, and oratory." The subject of Debate has been re-developed and specially arranged to meet the needs of institutions where the course in argumentation and debate leads to intercollegiate debating. The book possesses a make-up for clearness. Each chapter is introduced with a brief outline of the contents, the sub-topics in the text are marked with

symbols of sequence and are also in black faced type. Exercises follow each chapter illustrative of the points under discussion. The foot notes are abundant and they suggest a wide acquaintance with writers in this subject and adjacent fields.

The discussion of Argument is illustrated considerably from the lawyer's point of view. This enhances the value of the text for study in pre-law courses. The legal atmosphere of the text may, however, be an objectionable feature as some points may have been too technically presented to hold the interest of undergraduates who do not look toward law. This is answered by the author's point that Argumentation has been best developed in legal practice and we may not well overlook the fact. The main and generally accepted principles of argumentation are fully discussed. Notable features are "burden of proof" on pages 37 and 38; the discussion of argument from "sign" pages 138 and 139; "three great rhetorical principles" beginning on page 198; and the "parallel column brief" pages 238 and 239.

One might inquire why Part III which deals with debate was not included in Section D of Part II on Presentation, or vice versa. The two discussions are so closely connected that there seems repetition. The debated relation which conviction bears to persuasion is clearly stated in the Introductory and probably most teachers of argumentation will fully agree. The book is a thorough treatise on Argumentation and Debate. Its merit will without doubt immediately win a place for it among the best texts on this subject.

G. N. M.

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*The Fundamentals of Oral Expression.* By GLENN NEWTON MERRY, Iowa City, 1917, Published by the Author. Paper, pp. 90. \$0.80.

This pamphlet is the first of a series of three on the Fundamentals of Public Speaking. It deals entirely with the problem of delivery. The text is divided into ten sections with the following titles: The Forms of Public Speaking; The Method of Direct, Conversational, and Natural Speaking; Thought Dominance; Mood Content; The Physiological Basis of Tone Production; Articulation and Pronunciation; The Speaking Voice; Position, Movement, and Gesture; A Standard of Effective Delivery; and Oral Interpretation.

The author emphasises the fundamental purpose of all delivery in section two when he says, "The sole purpose of the mind of the speaker is to *convey thought* to another mind, to express to another mind the *impression it possesses*." He follows this with the true statement that anything which comes between the speaker and his auditors, such as an unpleasant voice, affected manner, awkward gestures, etc., is inimical to success. In section three he discusses Thought Dominance. He says that we reveal Thought Dominance by means of *Emphasis*; that there are four forms of Emphasis: (1) Force, (2) Pitch, (3) Time, and (4) Pause and Word Grouping.

The principal criticism of the development of this section is that instead of emphasising the fundamental law of *thought possession* laid down in section two, or the stimulating of the cause of all expression, he advocates the development of the mechanical means by the use of mechanical exercises. The following example is typical. "Speak the following sentences and note how thought is made clearer by additional force or stress of voice upon the italicized words; then decrease the force." This same point of view is held throughout the discussion of Pitch, Time, and Pause. Not once does he mention the fact, which is now generally recognized, that changes of pitch are due to discrimination in thought, that slow or rapid movement is the result of the mental or emotional attitude of the mind, and that to improve these means of *emphasis* we must stimulate the action of the mind.

The same criticism will apply to the chapter on Mood Content. Too much emphasis is placed on the mechanics of voice. Note his definition of *Voice Quality*. "By voice quality is meant combinations of the inflections of emphasis peculiar to the emotion to be conveyed." . . . "If we analyze the voice quality of gayety we find Time, Pitch, and Force playing a very important part. The tone of gayety is much higher in pitch than the tone of reverence or pathos." . . . "*We suit the tone to the thought.*"

In the first place few would accept his definition of voice quality. There is no attempt to explain the different causes of different qualities of tone, no hint that the student should genuinely think and feel. He should simply "develop a vocabulary of tones" and then use those tones as the occasion requires. That is the worst kind of elocution. It is simply using the voice for effect rather than stimulating the cause for right vocal action.

The section explaining the Physiological Basis of Tone Production is very well put with one exception. It seems like splitting hairs to divide exhalation into effusive, explosive, and expulsive exhalation. Such a division with the exercises given simply tends to make breathing mechanical. Exercises for the control of the diaphragm would accomplish the same result without introducing mechanics or useless terms.

There are two splendid sections on Pronunciation and Articulation, but the sections on the Speaking Voice and Position, Movement, and Gesture, while they contain much that is good fail to emphasize fundamental causes. If the author had carried through the fundamental law laid down in section two, namely that impression precedes all expression, he would have had a very usable text on delivery.

F. W. O.

NOTE: Wholly unavoidable accidents have so delayed the review of President William Trufant Foster's revised edition of his *Argumentation and Debating* (which was arranged for in September) that it is necessary to go to press with the October number without the review. It will appear in the next issue of the QUARTERLY.

—Editor.



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